The Nation.

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The Week.

THE New York Life Insurance Company's canvass of the political situation in the several States, by means of 12,000 letters from its own agents and correspondents, is but the latest of many such extra-political attempts to read the signs of the times. Like all the others, it points to the undoubted and emphatic triumph of the honest-money forces. The reason for this unusual interest of business men in the campaign is on the surface. Not even the Presidential election of 1860 was felt to be so momentous for the business of the country as is that of this year. If business men, bankers, employers, investors, captains of industry —all men with a stake in the stability of the country in the shape of a piece of property—have been stirred into extraordinary activity in this political contest, it is only what the nature of the campaign has compelled them to. Their eagerness to forecast the result is only the eagerness of men who have to plan their business operations, their manufacture of goods, their purchase of raw materials, their loans, months ahead. The general picking up of business and industry since the Maine election, together with the accumulating evidence of the utter demoralization of the Democratic canvass, prophesy eloquently of the prosperity the country may hope to enjoy in case the Bryanite assaults on property and confidence are beaten back crushingly.

Senator Butler, chairman of the Populist national committee, admits that the supporters of Bryan have no hope that he will get any electoral votes from Maine to Ohio, and the most that he claims for Delaware and Maryland is that they are in the "probable" column; which is a virtual admission that he expects them to go for McKinley, as does every intelligent observer. It is thus clear, weeks before the election, that the Populist candidate for the Presidency stands no chance in all that part of the country between Canada on the east and north and the Alleghanies, and the Potomac River on the west and south. This region casts nearly one-third of all the electoral votes —128 out of 447—and every Democratic candidate for President since the Republican party was formed has received some of these votes, even the party collapse during the Greeley campaign leaving Maryland outside the wreck. Four years ago the Democratic candidate carried five of these eleven States, which cast 63 electoral votes out of his total of 277 in the whole country.

The way in which the silverites have hailed Bismarck's coming to their rescue shows how willing they are to forgive one of their deadliest enemies, even without a hint of repentance on his part. They are none too scrupulous about the version of his letter they have used, or about the interpretation they put upon it; but, supposing that they were beyond reproach in these respects, what have they to say of Bismarck's record as "a friend of silver"? Do they attach more weight to what a man says out of office than to what he does in office? Talk of our criminals of 1873, they are the veriest pigmies beside Bismarck. Our criminal demonetization of silver affected less than $10,000,000, while Bismarck, in the course of seven years, demonetized the gigantic sum of $270,000,000, of which he actually and brazenly melted down $160,000,000 and sold it as bullion. Moreover, as we have been so often told, he did this hand in glove with our own conspirators. It was all a part of the huge conspiracy of the money power throughout the world. Bismarck was chief conspirator. His wickedness and malignity have been exposed over and over again by silver-tongued orators. Yet they now greet him as a brother in the silver faith, never suspecting, as less simple-minded mortals would, that his present desire to see something done for silver is due to a thrifty wish to get a higher price for the $107,000,000 of the article his country still has on hand and for sale. Never was there such joy over one sinner that repenteth not.

The funniest part of all is the way in which Bismarck's allusions to the suffering "farmers," as compared with the "drones," are taken to fit our case exactly. Bismarck's farmers are the great monopolistic landowners, Count Kanitz and the other leaders of the Agrarian agitators. They are the men who have tried to get up a war with Russia in order to retain their agricultural monopoly, and have succeeded in getting up tariff wars with Russia and the United States as well. It is to their efforts that is due the despite done the American hog in Germany, of which our Western farmers have complained so bitterly. These monopolistic, anti-American princes, counts, herzogs, and oberconsistorialraths are the suddenly discovered friends and fellows of the downtrodden American farmer. And yet there are some serious and sad-eyed citizens who deny that there is anything comic in this campaign.

The irregularity of the "regular" Democrats of New York State makes it somewhat difficult to follow their movements. It is never safe to assume in the morning that they will have a candidate for Governor in the field in the afternoon. They nominated Thacher knowing perfectly well that he had spoken against silver a few months before. They say that they did so thinking he would recant and come out for silver. He first wrote a letter saying he would accept, but he could not recant, though he could vote for Bryan. This they declared would not do, whereupon he wrote a second letter saying he could not accept because he hated free silver so incurably. They say they were "buncoed" by Thacher's friends, and that Senator Hill was the chief of their deceivers. Their latest choice is Wilbur F. Porter, and it is asserted with much confidence that he stands squarely upon the Bryan platform and is in no danger of repudiating it. Mr. Hill is credited with the selection and Tammany is satisfied with it. There was some natural regret that Mr. Danforth was not chosen, for he seemed to have special qualifications for the place. He helped count the illegal election return which enabled the Hill machine to steal control of the State Senate. Hill would have been forced, by ordinary gratitude, to support his candidacy, and the possible peril of Hill's support of Mr. Griffin would thus have been warded off, while the Hill machine would have been held together for the grand smash-up which awaits it in November. It is now thought that Mr. Black's majority will range from 250,000 to 300,000.

Not least among the factors now at work to checkmate the free-coinage agitation is the advance in wheat. A movement of this kind, based on entirely natural causes, and not on a shortage of the crop in the United States, has long been recognized by expert judges as a political influence of the first importance. Especially is this true of the present political campaign. Senator Teller and his associates have for months been declaring to the farmers that, under the gold standard, the price of grain not only cannot rise, but is bound to fall continuously. Mr. Bryan has supplemented this declaration by his assurance to the farmers that the retirement of redundant currency into the Treasury, under the loan of February, is certain to depress still further the price of every product. What are these gentlemen to say, now that the price of wheat advances? Friday's market touched a price nearly 9 cents per bushel above this year's low level, and 8¾ cents above the ruling price of a year ago this week. It is true, the outlook for the crop in some of the wheat-producing States is less favorable than it was two months ago. But the deterioration nowhere reaches to actual disaster, and the advance in price is all the more signi-

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ficant in that it comes at the very time when growing confidence in the defeat of the Chicago ticket has caused an unmistakable improvement in every branch of industry.

The intelligent farmer knows perfectly to-day that well-sustained credit in the trade community generally plays no small part in finding a profitable market for his wheat. If grain is thrown upon the market through the urgent necessities of sellers, it must go at a sacrifice. This happened, as every farmer knows, during the three months' panic of 1893, within which time the price of wheat dropped 13 cents per bushel. It happened during the panic of 1873, when wheat fell 20 cents or more within the same period; in 1857, when the price dropped 60 cents along with the collapse of credit. No one has ever questioned the connection between the break-down of business confidence in these periods and the forced sales of grain at heavy sacrifice. But if this is once admitted, it must equally be conceded that restoration of public confidence and credit to a normal basis means, all other things remaining equal, a recovery from such declines. Such a recovery has in fact been witnessed invariably, in a greater or less degree, when trade depression has found its remedy. That the overthrow of Mr. Bryan and his party would serve in this direction, cannot be reasonably doubted. Such an event will not correct the normal influence of increased or decreased supply—nothing can offset that. But it will certainly bring to the agricultural producer precisely the benefit which it brings to every industry throughout the country.

Added evidence that the farmers of the middle West differ not materially from their fellows in Maine and Vermont in their views on money obligations and national finances, is furnished in a unique poll conducted by a Chicago firm of farm-loan negotiators. It was unique in the fact that it was limited to farmers who are mortgageors—the class of voters to whom Bryan has looked most confidently for support, and for whose alleged benefit he would split the mortgage-paying dollar. The result is what might have been expected except by those who have been too ready to believe that the farmers, as a class, are willing to be dishonest by statute. On the books of the Chicago firm were the names of 4,000 farmers in Illinois, Minnesota, Nebraska, Iowa, and Missouri, who are borrowers of money secured by mortgages. Each was asked to indicate on a postal card how he intended to vote this fall, and, to make the poll a secret one, each was instructed not to place his name on the card. Of the 1,267 who have answered thus far, 979 will vote for McKinley, 186 for Bryan, 48 for Palmer, and 33 for the Prohibition nominee, 21 being undecided. Eighty out of each hundred of these mortgage-"afflicted" farmers declare for sound money. A much smaller ratio than this through the farming districts of the West would roll up a phenomenal majority against the Chicago repudiationist. Of the number declaring for McKinley, 49 write that four years ago they voted for Cleveland; the sound-money Democratic vote thus splitting about evenly between the Republican and the Indianapolis nominees.

In the *Journal* of Tuesday morning was a picture of Lord Russell and his wife sitting in a box listening to Mr. Black's speech at Carnegie Hall. Lord Russell was not there. The picture was an invention, a harmless one, perhaps, but still an invention. It is not too much to say that two-thirds of the newspaper pictures are of the same character—that is, lies about somebody or something. Most of these lies do not do direct injury to any one. They seldom represent anybody in a discreditable position. The way they are injurious is in leading people not to care whether anything they see in the papers is true or not—in diffusing, in fact, the general feeling that it makes no difference whether printed news matter ever describes what really happened. As this news matter is the chief reading of the people, the land is gradually getting covered with an atmosphere of unveracity which certainly must have some connection with our enormous number of business frauds and defalcations. Lying is at the bottom of nearly all, and a man who has read newspapers for some years must get into the way of thinking lying a small matter. How this matter progresses may be inferred from two things. Fifteen years ago the forgery of extracts from foreign prints would never have been dreamed of as a legitimate device by managers of political canvasses. During the last three Presidential campaigns it was freely used by the friends of a high tariff, and their committee rooms sent out great bundles of sayings of English newspapers which were manufactured on the spot. This year the Popocrats have gone into the business, and even Senator Teller gravely repeated on the stump a wholesale forgery of a passage in the report of the Royal Monetary Commission.

The Bryanites are still clinging to that London *Financial News* forgery, but their falsehoods about it are very clumsy. As originally put forth, the forgery purported to be an extract from the *Financial News* of March 10, 1896. When on August 13 that journal published an emphatic declaration that no such article had ever been printed by it, either on March 10 or at any other time, the Bryanites asserted that they would prove the genuineness of the extract, which had come to them "certified by a London clipping agency," by producing the copy of the paper from which it was clipped. A short time later they announced that all their efforts to obtain a copy had been fruitless, that "no newsdealer has it, and the publishers announce that it is out of print." The conclusion which they drew from this state of things was: "The *Financial News* claims a circulation of 1,500,000, which makes the sudden and complete disappearance of the issue of a certain date all the more mysterious and wonderful. The common mind immediately concludes the issue in question has been called in." We supposed that this settled the matter, but we are now in receipt of a broadside, sent out from the Bryan headquarters in Denver, in which it is asserted that the "Democratic headquarters has now in its possession a certified copy of the article in question, clipped from the London *Financial News* of April 30, 1894." No explanation is given of this sudden change of date, but as final "proof of the authenticity of the publication" it is added that "Senator Teller of Colorado states that more than a year ago he was shown and read a copy of the London *Financial News* of April 30, 1894, containing the identical editorial." It is not worth while to chase this forgery any further, for forgers who can shift their dates two or three years without offering any explanation can be trusted not to do much harm among intelligent people. The Bryanite broadside upon which we now find it, gives almost an entire page to the repeatedly exposed forgery of a letter from "J. Francis Forsythe, banker, of No. 11 Wall Street." There is no such banker in existence, and the letter is a stupid invention from beginning to end.

The demise of the daily newspaper which Croker established a few years ago in order to give himself and the other Tammany leaders the pleasure of seeing themselves spoken of in complimentary terms as statesmen and thinkers, ought to serve as a warning to other like adventurers into the field of journalism; but it will not. The *Mercury* began life as a Tammany organ and met its death as a silver organ, passing from public view in a perfect cloud of bad debts and bad language, everybody concerned accusing everybody else in any way connected with it of swindling and lying. What the total loss on the venture has been, from the beginning to its death, nobody will ever know, but it reaches many hundred thousands of dollars. Nobody was ever benefited a penny's worth by it, and a more foolish waste of money could not be imagined. Yet it is only one of an innumerable list of ventures of the same kind which have been made during the past half-century, and will continue doubtless to be made during the next half-century. There are several of them struggling with death at this moment, at great daily expense, in the hope of getting on a paying basis at least

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for a sufficient time to be sold out to somebody who is rich enough and vain enough to wish to "control" a personal organ. The public cares nothing for them, save as a temporary amusement. If they have a fine page of "crime" each day, or some other sensational "feature" which is in its way more alluring than other papers have, they may keep up a struggling existence for a time; but unless there be a silver mine or some other equally inexhaustible fund behind them, their fate is certain. They must go down, as the *Mercury* has gone, leaving behind them a lot of unpaid bills, forcing a considerable number of old and new journalistic experts "on to the sidewalk," and sending some of their chief promoters to jail under charges of swindling and other offences.

The English press is rather angry with the American public for not taking the great dynamite conspiracy more seriously. But the trouble is that the conspirators do not seem to be serious people. The *Daily News* account says: "Tynan passed Saturday evening in the bar of the Hotel Folkestone discoursing on politics and drinking very freely. He offered to stand drinks to different persons who entered the bar, and it was remarked that he was spending money very lavishly. He retired to bed intoxicated about two in the morning." Now we would ask respectfully whether this is the way desperate conspirators, with awful secrets to keep and dreadful designs on foot, pass their time. Do they make themselves conspicuous and talk politics in hotel bars? Do they get drunk nightly and go to bed about two A. M.? This used not to be their custom. They used to be quiet and reticent, and to avoid observation. If they had a tunnel to make, as Tynan had, across one of the principal streets of London, in order to blow up a palace and two royal families, they kept as much as possible out of the way of the police, and avoided liquor like poison. The reason they avoided liquor was that persons in liquor blab their secrets, or, as our phrase is, give themselves away freely, and nobody knows this better than dynamiters. Drunkenness is speedy ruin for them. It is the readiness of Tynan and Bell to take too much and to exhibit themselves as important personages, which has spread doubts here as to their being as dangerous as our English friends would have us believe. It may be all as described, but if so they are a new variety of the assassin, and not a quarter as dreadful as the old one. Drunken conspirators, charged with extensive tunnel excavation for explosive purposes, would be something novel in the annals of crime.

The late Trades Union Congress at Edinburgh has attracted in other countries less attention than it deserves, but it has made a very important change in the workingman's movement. In the first place, it rigidly restricted the size and has sobered the character of the body, by admitting only 340 delegates who actually represented working unions. This has shut out mere orators or men mainly orators like John Burns, and collectivists like Tom Mann and Ben Tillet. In fact, hardly any of the old agitators made their appearance, and politics was kept strictly subordinated to business. The committee on Parliament reported against the Ministry on the subject of its insufficient conciliation bill, its timid amendments to the stewardship bill, the failure of its mining legislation. In fact, it intimated that it had not fulfilled its preëlection promises. As there is no chance of the Liberals coming in, however, for five or six years, there was not much use in comparing the parties. The President, Mr. Mallinson, an Edinburgh shoemaker, made a strongly anti-Socialist address. He said the Socialists were very good in pointing out evils, but did little to suggest remedies. The result was a decided change in the position of the body. In 1893 it voted by a good majority that no parliamentary candidates should receive support who were not collectivists, and at Norwich, later, that the land and money should be "nationalized"; and Keir Hardie carried an amendment that "all the instruments of production, of distribution, and of exchange" should be nationalized also. At Edinburgh this year, they refused to go further than the nationalization of the mines and railroads. The congress also refused to vote for the payment of the electoral expenses of labor candidates. It also demanded the democratic reform of public education, in the direction of "equality of opportunity" for everybody.

The poverty of the English clergy has lately been the subject of vast numbers of letters to the London newspapers, and of much public discussion. As to the fact of the serious cutting down of clerical livings, in consequence of the decline in the value of Church endowments, there can be no doubt. At the last Church congress it was stated by the Dean of Norwich that 400 beneficed clergymen of the Church of England receive less than $250 a year, 3,500 less than $500 a year, 7,000 less than $650 a year. Yet the standard of clerical education and style of life has not been lowered, nor can it be, apparently, in the Church of England, where every clergyman is still expected to live like a gentleman. His daughters, as some of them have sardonically remarked, are expected to marry only with the gentry, though provided with neither the means nor the opportunities to make such marriages at all common nowadays. No effective remedy emerges in the course of the discussion—the one most in favor being a large sustentation fund upon which the poorer clergy may draw. When asked why the parishioners themselves do not come to the rescue of their distressed rectors, as the dissenting churches support their ministers without any endowment whatever, the Church organs give a rather involved answer. Such methods will not do for the Church of England, it is intimated, which is bound to keep a clergyman even in remote and unprosperous districts, where little or no money for his salary would be forthcoming. This seems, however, only a roundabout way of saying that the poorer folk in England have not exactly that enthusiasm for the Church that they have for their chapels. Doubtless, too, the fact that they have never had to contribute to the support of the Church makes them a little slow about beginning. The suggestion is sometimes made that the enormous incomes of the higher clergy might well be cut down for the benefit of their poorer brethren; but this is based on a misunderstanding. The incidental expenses of the fatter bishoprics are so great that it often requires a private fortune in the incumbent to support the dignity of the position. It was Tait, we believe, who, after his elevation to Canterbury, said he was glad to meet the Queen, as she was the first person he had encountered since being enthroned who had not asked him for some money.

Sir Joseph Lister's presidential address at the opening meeting of the British Association on September 16 was entirely devoted to illustrations of "the interdependence of science and the healing art." Departing thus from the usual custom of giving a survey of the entire field of scientific investigation and discovery, he confined himself to his own specialty. Yet for that very reason his account of the way physical and biological research and chemical analysis had advanced hand in hand with surgery and medicine was all the more impressive. Beginning with the Röntgen rays, he expressed the opinion that as yet only a start had been made in the application of that remarkable discovery to the work of the surgeon and the physician. The labors of Pasteur and Koch and of Lister himself in the study of fermentation and infectious diseases and antiseptic treatment are an older story, yet their summing up in the address serves to mark in telling fashion the great gain to humanity which has resulted. Sir Joseph lent the weight of his authority to a hearty endorsement of the anti-toxine cure for diphtheria—that achievement of Behring and Kitasato which was one of the most masterly pieces of purely scientific work, without any accident about it, ever done. When we add the light thrown on the defensive apparatus of the human system against disease by the remarkable researches of the Russian Metchnikoff on the white corpuscles of the blood, we get a total borrowing of medicine from science which is striking enough when thus massed.

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THE ORIGINAL CURRENCY-TINKERS.

It is not amiss to point out to that portion of the public which has been profiting by the "campaign of education," that although the subject of currency appears intricate, it is not really the subject, but the history of the subject, which makes it appear so; and its history is chiefly the history of the experiments made in currency by various governments. Governments have in all ages been trying to do something to currency, either because they thought they could make something by meddling with it, or because they thought they knew more about it than anybody else. In other words, they have been all trying to do every now and then the very thing which the Bryanites are trying to do. The Bryanites are simply engaged in what the monarchs have been engaged in since the earliest ages—seeing whether something could not be made for somebody, by either adulterating money or in some manner altering its value.

The monarchs saw that everybody wants money, that nothing can be done without money, that everybody either owes or is owed money, and it, of course, occurred to them at once that something might be made out of "handling" anything so generally necessary. They accordingly have always been doing what we call "monkeying" with it. Sometimes they clipped a little off of the coin. At another they put more alloy in it. At others they made the coin of different metal. At others they changed the name of the coin, or changed its value, or called it by a different name. At others, as in the case of Wood's Pence in Ireland, they sold somebody the privilege of making some kind of money to suit himself. They were able to do all this because they had the people "cornered" by the laws against counterfeiting. The counterfeiters were always dreadful fellows, and were hanged whenever caught, though they were only trying to do what the monarchs were doing themselves—that is, trying to make something by supplying people with a medium of exchange. As a general rule it is the account of these things which makes currency seem mysterious—how at one time so-and-so tried paper money, how so-and-so tried clipping and "sweating," how another tried adulterating, and so on, and what followed.

It is a melancholy chapter in human history, and we must not pretend that the people never fell in with the monarch's delusions, and that he always succeeded in "fooling" them, and that they did not join him in trying to fool somebody else. But for the most part tricks with the currency have been confined to the governments. If the matter were left to the plain people, currency would really, as far as gold and silver and copper are concerned, have hardly any history at all, because what is desired by the mass of plain people, who are honest and are trying to earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, is simply a standard of value, something with which to measure the exchangeable value of other things. If these people had always had their way, they would simply go from one metal to another, in search of stability, not in search of an advantage over somebody else. They would not say, "My case is a hard one; I am not so well off as I used to be. I had better cheat some one, and the easiest way to do it is to steal into the Government Office, and shorten the yard measure or diminish the quart pot." It is when men get power, not simply when they are hard up, that they think of these things.

Consequently what we are witnessing in this country is simply an attempt on the part of Democracy to do what monarchy used to do for its own benefit. Finding that monarchs had legal tender and made a good thing of it, it must have legal tender too. Finding that monarchs used to make money out of paper, or leather, or anything that came handy, Democracy must make money too. Finding that monarchs had given out that nothing could be money unless they put a stamp on it, and that whatever they stamped was money, no matter what it was called, Democracy declared that it must have the same powers and privileges. In fact, the Supreme Court put this into the heads of Democracy by the legal-tender decisions. The court said: These old kings always made money when they wanted it. They said it was all "shucks" to say that money was simply a measure of value, and that no one had any right to manufacture it for his own profit; what was the use of being a Government if you could not manufacture it? What was called "sovereignty" necessarily included the money-making power, and if you could not make money, where was the sovereignty?

The Bryanites have learned this lesson thoroughly. They want to be sovereigns and get hold of the sovereignty, not for the benefit of their health, but to make something to "square" things. The power, they say, has passed to the people, and the people are not going to spend it on "toys, or lust, or wine." They are going to use it to enable every man to grow rich. Poverty has lasted long enough, and so has the use of collateral in making loans. What the Government now calls money will be money, and the hateful custom of loans will disappear from the earth. Why borrow when you can make? When a citizen feels "short," far from going to a banker and cringing for "accommodation," he will go to a printing-office, and say what sum he needs. This would at once bring about that equality of conditions for which the world has been sighing for ages, and would abolish taxation as well as loans, and then every dealer could charge what he pleased for his wares. It would be all one to the consumer whether he paid fifty cents or one hundred dollars for a watermelon, or five cents or a million for a pair of trousers. The only monetary difficulty would be the difficulty of transportation; but even this could be got over by raising the denominations, and printing notes of one million or one billion.

THE FAILURE OF FUSION.

Five weeks before the election, the Populist candidate for Vice-President proclaims the failure of the fusion which was the sole hope of Bryan's success, and virtually gives up the fight. In a despatch to the *World* of Monday, Tom Watson, with that characteristic disregard of the conventionalities which makes him so entertaining a public character, admits the utter collapse of the campaign for free coinage, and shows why this result was the inevitable consequence of the course that has been pursued.

A new political organization can be built up to success only by its devotion to some principle which attracts men who had been adherents of other parties until it includes a majority of the voters. This was the way in which the Republican party grew into complete dominance. Its founders made opposition to the further extension of slavery its one great aim, and all who sympathized with that aim were impelled to support the Republican party as the only way of accomplishing the desired result. Watson evidently believes that this is the sole way of making a new idea prevail, and he is quite right about it—although, of course, not every new idea which is pushed in this legitimate manner will succeed. The other way of building up a new political organization is by trades with existing parties or sections of parties. This was what the Greenback managers attempted when their idea had secured a wide vogue, nearly twenty years ago. Watson thus describes the result:

> "The Greenback party represented substantially the same principles for which Populism now stands. Its growth was sudden and colossal; its death was swift and sure. Springing up as a protest against both the old parties, its power increased as long as it kept the straight middle course and compromised none of its principles. The moment it began to fuse with the old parties and to put faith in the pledges of its political foes, it fell, never to rise again."

The Populist candidate for Vice-President declares that "Populism was but a second attempt to throw off the evil domination of the two old parties"; that "its cardinal policy was the union between South and West"; and that "the one thing absolutely necessary to the completeness of this union was that Populists should steer clear of both the old parties." What has actually happened this year has been the very opposite of this policy. The Democrats at Chicago, according to Watson, "purloined our platform, and nominated for the first place on the ticket a brilliant young man whose record and creed were more Populist than Democratic," while for second place a

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man was named of whom most of the delegates had not heard before, and of whom "the more they learned after getting home, the greater was their inclination softly to swear." Shrewd Democratic managers arranged a "deal" with certain Populist leaders of the West before the meeting of the Populist national convention, by which "the Populists were to have the local offices, and the Democrats the national vote." But the convention, by nominating a Populist for Vice-President in advance of the Presidential nomination, served "notice that, in the proposed partnership between Democracy and Populism, Populism intended to be one of the partners." Nevertheless, Chairman Jones of the Democratic national committee concealed Bryan's telegram that he would not accept a Populist nomination unless Sewall were also nominated, and permitted the nomination of Bryan and Watson without protest; the Populists believing that the Democrats would meet them on half-way ground, withdraw Sewall, and unite the silver forces of both parties by naming a representative of both on the national ticket.

Watson believes that, "if the Democratic managers had recognized the necessary conditions to complete political union and accepted the compromise we offered, the fight would now be won." But a very different policy was pursued:

"Instead of meeting the Populists half-way and making them feel a hearty interest in Democratic success, they did everything possible to dissatisfy, discourage, and arouse the suspicions of the very men whose votes were essential to victory. Intent upon destroying Populism at the South and absorbing it at the West, the Democratic managers made the mistake of supposing that any deal they could arrange with our 'leaders' would be cheerfully supported by the rank and file. Hence fusion has become a sort of craze, like the chewing-gum habit, and there has been such a swapping and trading around of votes and offices as was never seen before. From the county tickets clear on up to the Presidency, the science of politics has been reduced to the good old business rule of 'How much have you got?' and 'What will you take?'"

Watson describes the absurdities to which this policy has led, among them that "in one State of this great and glorious Union the fusion goes half the distance between Populists and Republicans, and the other half between Populists and Democrats." The results of all this sacrificing of principles and trading of expected offices are thus graphically stated:

"Fusions of this kind are enough to give the man in the moon the jumps. As a grave-digger for Populism, fusion with Sewall on the ticket may as well be recognized as a distinct success. If not disturbed in his work, the digger will have the hole ready by the time the funeral procession arrives.

"I respectfully warn Mr. Chairman Jones of the danger Mr. Bryan is in. The Populist voters are dissatisfied and suspicious. They feel instinctively that the fusion policy which compels them to vote for Sewall is the beginning of the end of the People's party. They feel that the principles they love are being used as political merchandise, and that the Populist vote is being auctioned off to the highest bidder. They suspect that Populism has been bought and paid for, and is now being delivered to those who bought it. Is the full Populist vote necessary to Mr. Bryan's election? If so, the sooner Mr. Jones realizes that it cannot be had under any arrangement which compels the Populists to make a humiliating surrender of their principles in voting for Sewall electors, the better it will be for our campaign. Under present conditions Mr. Bryan cannot get the full Populist vote.

"Populist voters are men who have educated themselves on political topics. They will not stultify themselves by voting against their convictions. They will not vote for a man who, if Mr. Bryan dies, will make us another President after the fashion of Grover Cleveland. They may not be able to break up the fusion deal, but they can stay at home."

Sewall will not get off the ticket. He took occasion to assure the Bryan Democrats in Boston on Friday night that he was "still on the ticket," and that "you will have a nominee for Vice-President during this campaign, and he will not decline." Sewall believes, as he declared a few days ago, that "there could be no surer way of making Bryan's defeat certain" than his withdrawal, and he is probably right. There would then be no pretence of Democracy about the so-called Democratic ticket, since Bryan's "record and creed," as Watson says, "were more Populist than Democratic"—although Sewall, the believer in high protection, is not much of a Democrat himself.

The fusionists thus approach election in a state of utter demoralization, from which recovery is impossible. Each of the parties which entered into the fusion is disgusted with the other, and hundreds of thousands whose votes were counted upon by the traders will stay away from the polls. The result will thus prove a deserved defeat of those who sacrificed principle in the delirium of a surrender to demagogism.

THE ENGLISH HUMILIATION.

THE BERLIN TREATY.

"The Sublime Porte undertakes to carry out, without further delay, the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and to guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds. It will periodically make known the steps taken to this effect to the Powers, who will superintend their application."

THE ANGLO-TURKISH CONVENTION.

"In return, his Imperial Majesty promises to England to introduce necessary reforms, to be agreed upon later between the two Powers, into the government and for the protection of the Christians and other subjects of the Porte in these territories; and, moreover, to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagements, his Imperial Majesty the Sultan further consents to assign the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England."

We place at the head of this article a section of the Treaty of Berlin, and one of the Anglo-Turkish Convention concluded between England and Turkey before the Treaty of Berlin. It will be seen that the Porte is, under the treaty, bound to all the signatory Powers to reform "without further delay," and to report periodically in detail what it is doing. Under the convention with England concluded by Disraeli and Lord Salisbury, the Sultan agrees separately with England to do the same thing, in return for protection promised him by England, and, to help England in preparing for this protection, assigns her the island of Cyprus. As one Englishman has remarked: "We have got the island of Cyprus, but the Armenians are mostly dead."

It will be seen from this that England has no more solemn engagement than her engagement to protect the Armenians and enforce reforms generally in the Turkish Empire. In fact, she has no engagement half so solemn. She put no ifs or buts into it. Mr. Gladstone underwent gross abuse at the hands of the Conservatives for making peace with the Boers after Majuba Hill, and for not rescuing Gordon; but if the worst construction that could be put on his conduct in these matters were true, his offences would be peccadilloes compared with the attitude now occupied by the Government with regard to the Christian population of Turkey. His very weakness was stronger than Lord Salisbury's strength. He fought two battles with the Boers, and tried to get to Khartum, merely for humanity and glory, but Lord Salisbury is allowing the greatest savage in Christendom to ridicule and violate under his nose the very agreement which he came home and told the English people was "peace with honor." There is peace, certainly, but, shades of Cromwell and Pitt! what about the honor?

The excitement in England, and in fact all over Europe, is growing every day. An immense meeting was addressed by Mr. Gladstone in Liverpool on Thursday, and his voice rang as clearly for justice as it did at the time of the Bulgarian massacres twenty years ago, when, too, the Conservatives were trying to poohpooh them. Part of the action he proposes to take against "the great assassin" is to withdraw the British Ambassador from Constantinople. Withdrawing an ambassador is the equivalent of "cutting" in private life; but any one who proposed simply to "cut" an assassin would be laughed at. The withdrawal of the British Ambassador, unless it were a preliminary to war, would probably delight the Sultan, as it would diminish the number of his critics, and he would go on killing with renewed vigor. It is just to Mr. Gladstone to say that he explicitly means it to be a preliminary to war.

From his own coreligionists the Sultan would meet with no disapproval. The only fault they probably find with his course is his tardiness. They think he ought to have killed all the Christians long ago. In fact, Europe, after fighting and praying against the Turk for four hundred years, is looking calmly on while he perpetrates horrors from which his predecessor, who captured Constantinople in 1453, would have recoiled and did recoil. We think with a shudder of the

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massacre of St. Bartholomew—that is, the slaughter of his own subjects by a sovereign on account of their religion, three hundred years ago. We are witnessing to-day precisely the same thing, on a scale compared to which St. Bartholomew seems a mere street riot. Nothing like what is now going on in Turkey has happened since Tamerlane. It far outdoes the Greek horrors, for the Greeks resisted, arms in hand, and died fighting and killing their tyrants. The present victims fall like sheep and oxen, and nearly a thousand have fallen for every Greek who fell. It is something appalling when one thinks of it as occurring in the presence of Christian Europe, which has 5,000,000 of men under arms, and which could crush Turkey like an egg-shell.

What Lord Salisbury expects us to believe is, that the other Powers would go to war with him if he were to say that he made no pretence to possess and keep Constantinople or any portion of Turkey; that if he occupied any portion of it, it would be held in trust for united Europe and would be disposed of by general agreement, but that he could not stand by quietly in the presence of these horrors any longer; that he must stop wholesale massacre of unarmed men, women, and children; that monsters could not be permitted to go unchecked in the nineteenth century; that, come what might, Great Britain would stop wholesale murder. We do not believe it. But if any Power chose to go to war for such a reason, an English Minister ought to be able to answer, Let war come, and God defend the right. In a war like this man would, in the highest sense, die for man. In the long list of fratricidal contests in which our race has been engaged, there was not one which could be so boldly called a just war. A really great Minister, a man of firmness and courage, would not hesitate long in reaching such a decision. The foolish message of the Emperor of Germany to Paul Krüger seems a small matter, and yet it called out a fleet in battle array.

Mr. Gladstone does well to mention striking occasions on which the Powers acted alone against Turkey—Russia three times within the present century: once in 1828, once in 1853, and once in 1877, every time on behalf of oppressed Christians. France acted alone in 1840, when, for a similar purpose, she landed a force in Syria, and procured there most important reforms. England has interfered also with armed force twice within the century, but both times on behalf of the Turks. The battle of Navarino, fought in behalf of the Greeks in 1827, when the Turkish fleet was destroyed, was really a mistake wrought by the Admiral. The ministry at home condemned his action, as "an untoward event," though it had the good result of bringing the Greek war to an end. But the Crimean war and the demonstration of 1878 were both undertaken on behalf of Turkey—that is, for the purpose of perpetuating her domination in the Christian provinces; and this support of Turkey began when Russia began to push eastward. In other words, the Turkish misrule has been bolstered up in order to preserve India from an infinitely remote danger.

In 1878 Disraeli and Lord Salisbury had no hesitation whatever about acting alone. They never asked what France or Germany would do. They prepared to fight Russia on behalf of the Turk, and even brought troops from India for that purpose, and then they pretended they had agreed to defend Turkey against further attacks solely on condition that she would reform. She has never in twenty years since made the slightest attempt at reform, unless reforming people means cutting off their heads. She has in this way reformed nearly the entire Armenian nation. Lord Salisbury now says that this promise of Turkey's was illusory, that it cannot be enforced, and that the pledge of Cyprus was of no value, or was, in other words, simply a bit of Disraeli's charlatanry.

There can be little doubt that interference now is not a whit more dangerous than in 1878, or so dangerous. Russia is not armed and in the field as she was in 1878. She has three powerful States, Rumania, Servia, and Bulgaria, to say nothing of Greece, on her road, which would be unwilling to see her enter Constantinople. She has not now, as she had in 1877, an army flushed with victory and generals of proved ability and experience. In other words, she is much less ready for war on land than she was twenty years ago. Moreover, the English fleet is much larger and stronger than it was then. It is supposed to be a match for all the other navies in the world combined. The Turkish problem is mainly a naval one, and it is not at all sure that if England were evidently bent on solving it, she would not have the assistance of the Italian and American fleets.

The real trouble here is plainly the character of the Prime Minister. He is an accomplished writer and talker, a critic bred to say sharp things in the *Saturday Review*. But he is not the man "to face a lie in arms." He would far sooner let it run, and thank God he was well rid of a knave. He shrinks from action, but gives always a clever account of the reasons why he shrank. Not one bold or energetic measure has ever marked any of his administrations excepting the locking up of Irishmen. His reluctance to act, in fact, drew on him from Bismarck at Berlin the scathing remark that he was "a wooden lath painted to look like iron."

A NEW WRONG TO WRITERS.

Authors have long and justly complained of the outrages which they have had to suffer at the hands of critics. Their list of grievances has been often recited. Of course, no review of a book can have the slightest effect upon its sale, or upon the reputation of its writer. That is agreed, to start with. Only, if the critics will go on deceiving themselves into thinking that they are informing and directing the public taste, why in the name of the nine muses will they not do their work better? Why do they not once in a while produce as good a review as the author himself could write with ease? Reviews are horribly dull as a rule. This is a serious injustice to writers, since the public infers that if their works have such a stupefying effect on a critic who has carefully read them, purchasers in search of something to keep an elderly gentleman awake in the bosom of his family had better look elsewhere. But that is just it—the critics do not carefully read the books they write about. "Settling Comte unread" is an old trick of theirs.

As we say, these are all old and well-known charges of the writing tribe against the reviewing tribe. Judge, then, the surprise of patient critics, anxious to please, at learning now that their greatest offence consists in writing readable reviews, filled with all manner of brilliant things culled from the book under notice. So they are informed by an aggrieved English author, who calls upon the Authors' Society to take the field against all critics who write interesting reviews starred with witty sayings from the writer they are considering. The reason is plain. "A review which picks out and publishes all the 'plums,' obviously makes it unnecessary for the reader to buy the book." Why should a man pay $2 for what he can get the quintessence of for 10 cents? Any review, in fact, which evinces a low desire to produce interesting "copy" is on its face suspicious. It is basely written (insinuates the injured author) wholly for the benefit of the paper in which it appears, and is cruelly indifferent to the well-being of either author or publisher. Is it not well known that "many brilliant people derive almost their entire knowledge of current literature from extracts in so-called reviews"? It needs no argument, then, to show that if there were no such extracts, and if reviews were decorously stupid, the sale of books would be much increased.

A literary outrage so novel as the one thus exposed naturally requires a considerable readjustment of the traditional ideas about writers and reviewers and their relation to each other. Are we, then, no longer to believe in the great comfort of being an unpopular author? We thought all true geniuses were ambitious to belong to such a "Society of Unsuccessful Authors" as Daudet, Zola, and the Goncourts made up. What delight they found in not being read! What a joke it was on their publishers to be unable to get rid of even a first edition of 800 copies! As for the critics, if they had

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said a good word for any one of the society, the others would have disowned him and cut him dead. It was a trying moment for Daudet—that night when he had to confess that his last novel had gone into a second edition. The startled and pained glances of his fellow-artists for art's sake were hard to bear. What they would have done when even the reviewers began to praise, one can imagine if their own novels had not begun to catch favorable breezes about the same time.

Then there is also the contempt for critics which all rising authors feel; is there something hollow about that too? Brilliant people who derive their knowledge from writers themselves, know that nothing helps the sale of a book like a sound damning of it in the critical journals. If an author can only get the authorities to say that he is an ignorant young fool, an absurd creature, an imitator or plagiarist, his fortune is made. The critic's worst is the author's best. Non-committal book-notices, faint praise, indifference—these are all bad; but a hearty cuffing down stairs and a rousing kick into the streets fill the writer's cup to overflowing. So at least the brilliant people who repeat what writers tell them have been in the habit of saying. But what are we to think when the opinion is boldly advanced, within earshot of the Authors' Society, that if reviews are not very important in helping the sale of a book, they are "potent in hindering it"?

It is clear enough, however, that the duties of a reviewer under the new order of things will be arduous in the extreme. He will have to titillate the reader's appetite without gratifying it, excite his curiosity without satisfying it, be by turns provoking, alluring, suggestive, inflaming, and yet never by any chance reveal the first thing about the author's style, plot, or *Tendenz*. He must devise a lifeless review which will yet make people furious to buy the book he is writing about. Otherwise he will fail of his chief end in life, which is, of course, to write a criticism that will be satisfactory in all respects to the author criticised.

A critic's first moving about in such a world half realized must naturally be rather clumsy and blundering; and so indulgence will have to be asked for the early specimens of the new style of reviewing. The plunge must be made, however, and readers be accustomed to book-notices which will run something like the following:

"We congratulate Messrs. Shelf & Counter on the handsome form in which they have brought out 'Stranger than Truth.' The unique color-scheme of the binding we should take pleasure in describing did we not fear it might keep a single one of our readers from buying and seeing for himself. As for the novel itself, we stake our critical reputation on the assertion that the plot is one which it would be little short of criminal to betray by so much as a hint, that there is a situation on p. 117 which will make the sourest reader laugh in spite of himself, that two epigrams occur in one paragraph (p. 43) which would be enough to make the fame of a writer less distinguished than Mr. Airy Nothing, and that those who make a practice of avoiding the tenderest and most genuine pathos had better skip the whole of chapter xiii. With these citations we leave the book (price $1.75) to our readers' undisturbed enjoyment, and if our critical remarks upon it prove the means of carrying it into one home where it otherwise might not have gone, we shall ask no other or more grateful reward."

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF CRIMINAL ANTHROPOLOGY.

BRIEG, September 1, 1896.

THE "criminal anthropologists" met in Geneva August 25 to 29. The meeting was not very well attended. As usual with these congresses for criminology, it was largely made up of Italians and Frenchmen, for, as everybody now knows, the subject of criminal anthropology first came forward with a claim to recognition through the work of the Italian school; and the most vigorous rivals of the Italians—opponents and critics of their results—have been French. Indeed, it would be difficult to find men of standing in other countries, except, perhaps, Belgium and Switzerland, who would admit that there is, strictly speaking, a science of criminal anthropology at all. The earlier congresses, held in Rome, Paris, and Brussels, have indeed been largely occupied with controversies over the very claim of the topic to scientific place, and to the clearing up of a workable concept in the minds of its advocates.

The progress of the topic has been, however, it seems to the present writer, continuous from the time that Lombroso brought out his first books; and this progress has been due rather to the discussions of the concept of criminology and of the method of investigation than to the actual value of the works so far printed. There is to-day a series of clearly formulated problems, all dealing with the criminal, and the tendency and direction of this congress was to put them in clearer light. Lombroso himself, while showing that lamentable weakness known as hasty generalization, has also shown a great merit—scientific "accommodation." He has remained at the head of the school by incorporating into his books, which have appeared in startling succession, points of view which modified his own most essentially. He began with his theory of atavism; then accepted Ferri's classification of criminals, although it deprived the theory of atavism of perhaps more than half of its range of application; then proved equally hospitable to the theory of "degeneration"; and now, at the fourth congress, applauds the proposition of the men who are seeking to substitute a criminal and social psychology for the anthropology with which he (Lombroso) started out. We cannot agree with those who sneer at a man of such flexibility, though it is not a virtue of a very high order. There can be no doubt that the setting of the problem of the criminal in the more adequate form which brings its elements into relation to each other (the factors of heredity known as atavism and degenerescence, and with them the factors due to the social environment, as the newer researches are endeavoring to find them out), got its first start from the work of Lombroso. Nor can we doubt that the *Gebiet* now marked out, and covered perhaps more adequately by the word "criminology," is destined to be one day really scientifically and fruitfully worked.

The congress was presided over by M. Ladame of Geneva, and was opened by the President of the Swiss Republic with a sensible speech. The meetings were well arranged, not too crowded; and the discussions were extended, oratorical, and interesting. I shall cite a few of the more important papers, more to show what seems to be the way of progress in this field than actually, in the space I have, to make an adequate note of the proceedings.

Lombroso's account of the recent history of criminal anthropology will be found by readers of the "Proceedings" to show his receptivity to newer points of view of which I spoke above. The résumé which he had in the *Popular Science Monthly* last year might be looked up for an account of the earlier phases of the movement, and the part played in it by Lombroso. Signor Ferri, who speaks as a jurist (being a Roman Senator as well as an anthropologist), presented what he called an "*invitation*" to the congress to a new programme; *i. e.*, he urged the consideration of the relation of "temperament" to crime. His paper was an attempt to show that too much effort had been given to minute questions, such as physical "stigmates," mental aberrations, alcoholism, etc., etc, and that the criminal should be considered *as a whole*, from the point of view of his temperament. The character of the audience may be inferred from the fact that such vague and general sayings as this, presented in loud tones and with genuine southern eloquence, carried such applause and begot such enthusiasm as no others in all the sessions, except, perhaps, other speeches of Ferri's. It is, of course, precisely what would be subversive of all that has been done in the way of exact research into special topics, and open all the vials of scorn which the psychologists and jurists are just beginning to close up, thus to chase generalities like "temperament." If there is one topic which psychology has not made much clearer since Galen, it is that of temperament. And after getting some sort of theory of temperament from psychology, the further difficult proposition would have to be made out that the social sense and the moral sense vary in some regular way with temperament. Possibly, on the contrary, we shall have to wait for a doctrine of temperament until criminology makes out its classifications of men with reference to the development of their social and ethical sense. But, at any rate, Ferri, the Roman orator, was the hero of the congress, and, as I said above, if Lombroso were not so broad-minded in his attitude to his disciples, he might fear for the leadership of the school.

A much abler and very judicious, calm, and penetrating paper was that by M. Dalamagne of Brussels on "Degenerescence and Criminality." He aimed to determine the concept of degeneration from biological and social data, to decide what part its signs or "stigmates," of physical, mental, and social sorts, should play in the theory of it; then to do the same for the concept of criminality; and, finally, to bring the two concepts into relation to each other. The emphasis which he laid on the social, as over against the physical stigmates of the Italian school, makes his paper notable.

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A lively discussion also followed the paper on "Anarchism" by Van Hamel of Amsterdam. The discussion was very conservative from a legal point of view, although the author classified the professed anarchist as a *criminel-né*. In the discussion the point was raised that such a classification of the anarchist tended to produce anarchists, since it removed the responsibility of such criminals, opened the door to the plea of determinism, and so paralyzed the arm of law. The Italians had no trouble in disposing of this criticism by citing the greater effectiveness and humanity which have followed in the treatment of the insane since the types of insanity were more clearly made out and the *aliéné-né*, so to speak, treated as such.

Apart from general topics, of which those cited above may be considered fair examples, this congress paid much attention to practical questions. Two forenoon sessions were devoted respectively to *Applications légales* and *Applications administratives*. In these practical matters the warmest discussion was excited by M. Legrain's paper on "Alcoholism and Degeneration." He has followed through four generations, in 215 families, the effects of drink; and if his statistics of various forms of "degeneration"—seen in convulsions, epilepsy, hysteria, meningitis, high infant mortality, together with idiots, imbeciles, and insane persons—are reliable, the paper will be a veritable prohibition campaign document, as well as a contribution to social statistics. In the discussion which followed, a strong party made itself heard in favor of absolute personal abstinence from all alcoholic beverages, and of stringent legal restrictions, led by the well-known psychologist Prof. Forel of Zurich and by M. Legrain. This topic got some of its interest, no doubt, from the recent congress devoted to it at Basle, which has been much talked of in the Swiss papers. The statistics of national drunkenness, which were so impressively urged at Basle, came up again in Geneva, and this time with the practical question whether the congress—in view of the connection long ago made out between alcoholism and crime—should not declare itself officially on the subject. Forel gave some new and startling figures bearing on this relation between drink and crime. The outcome was that the congress adopted unanimously, though in the closing session, which was not largely attended, a resolution declaring it to be the business of the congress to further restrictive legislation of a stringent kind in all countries.* In this connection it may be of interest to refer to some "curves of drink" exhibited in the department of "Science and Education" in the National Exposition at Geneva, showing the relative amount consumed per capita per annum of various beverages in a dozen civilized countries. France and Italy are the most vinous; and France is, on the whole, the most alcoholic country. As to beer, Belgium is first; England, second; Germany, third; and the United States, fourth—a position which we have reached by a rapid advance since 1840, when we were at the very bottom of the list.

The acute opposition which showed itself so many times between the Italian anthropologists and the party which may be called psychological, and which grew so wearisome in this as in the earlier congresses, came to a lively issue on the third day, when a Russian delegate read a paper on the relation of criminal anthropology and law, in which he declared there was no relation because there was no such thing as criminal anthropology. This precipitated, of course, all the wrath of the Italians, and their retorts were as direct as those of the opposition, of whom one declared that he had asked the opinion of one of the greatest German neurologists (giving the name) as to the value of the work of Lombroso, and had got the reply that Lombroso himself was undoubtedly a degenerate. Such remarks as this, and such personal controversy as a whole, made the gathering very ridiculous. But, on the other side, who can wonder at the scorn of the psychologists and neurologists when papers are read on the peculiar character of the criminal's cerebral texture and the meaning of the wrinkles in the palm of his hand?

This will, no doubt, suffice to give the reader a sufficiently good idea of what was the subject-matter of this fourth congress. As to its personnel, it is interesting to know that all the following countries had official delegations: Argentine, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, Great Britain, Hungary, Japan, Holland, Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Italy (city of Alessandria), Switzerland (city of Berne).

From the United States there were only two "adherents" on the list of members. The next congress is to be held at The Hague (on the invitation of the Dutch Government conveyed through the Department of Justice) in 1901—this rather than in Paris in connection with the Universal Exposition of 1900, which was the alternative proposition. Comparing the two congresses of this summer—that of Psychology and this of Criminal Anthropology—the former has abundant reason to congratulate itself.

J. M. B.

* In effect, I was not at this meeting and so follow the newspaper reports.

A NEW CHAPTER IN GERMAN ROMANTICISM.

CAMBRIDGE, September 13, 1896.

PROF. ERWIN ROHDE, the distinguished classical philologist, has done a good service to students of German civilization by recently publishing, from manuscripts preserved in the Heidelberg University Library, the letters relating to one of the strangest and saddest episodes in the history of Romanticism—the love tragedy which ended in the suicide of Karoline von Günderode.

Karoline von Günderode was a worthy representative of that brilliant activity displayed by women in the higher concerns of life which gave to German culture of the beginning of the nineteenth century such a decidedly feminine tinge. If she lacked the vivacity of her friend Bettina Brentano, she also lacked her coquettishness and theatrical mannerism. If she did not have the keenness of analysis possessed by Rahel Varnhagen, she was also free from Rahel's bent for fantastic and hair-splitting speculation. And to both Bettina and Rahel she was superior in sincerity of feeling, depth of passion, and true womanly charm. She was a genuine poet, not so much in what she wrote for the public ear (although her poems were admired even by Goethe) as in her every-day thoughts, her letters to friends, her whole manner of life. It is not surprising that her refined beauty and aristocratic bearing should have attracted the best men of her time. Savigny, the great jurist, devoted to her years of chivalric friendship. Clemens Brentano, editor of the 'Wunderhorn,' went into raptures over her. No man, however, understood her so well or stirred her so deeply as the one who was to lead her to her own destruction, namely, Friedrich Creuzer, the famous author of the 'Symbolik.'

Creuzer, also, is a typical figure of the period preceding the national catastrophe of 1806, a period which was as devoid of moral vigor as it was rich in æsthetic cultivation. As we see him in his public activity, in his far-reaching studies on the religion of the ancient Greeks, in his petty quarrels with scientific opponents, he appears as both a pathfinder and a perverter of sound methods of historical investigation; as a strange mixture of noble inspirations and selfish conduct, of mystic intuition and scholastic pedantry; as a priest of humanity and at the same time as a vain professor. One must keep all these conflicting qualities of his in mind in order to understand how his relations to Karoline von Günderode came to be what they were.

When Creuzer, in the spring of 1804, entered upon his Heidelberg professorship, he was thirty-three years old; for half a decade he had been united in childless marriage to a widow, thirteen years his senior. Is it surprising that when, on a beautiful August day of the same year, on the terrace of Heidelberg castle, he met Karoline von Günderode for the first time, he should have experienced an inner revolution such as Werther underwent when he for the first time saw Lotte? He feels at once that from now on there are only two possibilities: "Heaven or death; there is no mean between the two." He flies into the solitude of the forests in order to read her letters, and when he looks up to the sky from her pages, it seems to him as though he were looking into the eyes of his beloved. He hides her poems on his shelves in order to enjoy them alone in the stillness of the night. And at last—two months after the first meeting—he informs his wife "that he can no longer consider her as his wife, in fact, has never considered her as such, but that he will for ever cherish grateful feelings towards her"; whereupon the wife, in a fit of sudden magnanimity, declares that she approves of his sentiment, renounces her claims on him, and desires to be in future nothing but an older sister to him. In short, it seems as though the whole affair were to end in happy romantic fashion: husband and wife will peacefully separate and another union be established. Or, to adopt Creuzer's own inimitable phraseology, the wife will stay in the house "as mother, as the manager of the household," while the loved one will bring "freedom and poetry" into the husband's life—exactly the same situation, by the way, which forms the basis of the tragic conflict in one of the most remarkable realistic dramas of our own time, Gerhart Hauptmann's "Einsame Menschen."

In Creuzer's and Karoline's case, as in the modern drama, the serenity of those paradisaic dreams soon gives way to gloomy forebodings. Sophie, the wife, retracts her resignation; she is ready to leave the house, but in despair only, not in good part; she is not willing to tolerate Karoline by her side. And Creuzer, impulsive as always, and, theoretically at least, of a chivalrous frame of mind, realizes at once that he must not force his wife's actions; he is unwilling, in his own words, "to demand a human sacrifice." Recognizing his duty towards his wife so clearly, one would think that he must see with equal clearness his duty towards Karoline: a speedy and complete rupture of their relations seems imperative. But, far from feeling this, Creuzer is now all the more eager to retain Karoline's love. He speaks with the utmost disdain of

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the "abyss of *Bürgerlichkeit*" which forbids a married man to think of other women. He talks of dying with Karoline. He beseeches her not to abandon his "beautiful soul." "I am like one of those wooden Silenus figures in Plato's 'Symposium' which, mean in themselves, serve as cases for beautiful images of gods enclosed in them. The divine image encased in my poor body is my soul, which was capable of feeling your worth." He compares Karoline to Raphael's "Poesy"; he glorifies her as the Virgin Mary hovering in eternal youth and freedom above the clouds:

"I often appear to myself criminal in wishing to draw you down into this domestic world, when I see how you, a Virgin, hover gloriously in the splendor of the stars, untouched by the burdens of life. And yet, when I think how once it was your own will to descend into this world of mine, then I rejoice again in the consciousness of my courage to die with you."

The result of all this reckless playing with fire is another meeting of the lovers at Frankfort, Karoline's residence. And this meeting, of course, gives added violence to the flame of passion. Karoline appears from now on in Creuzer's letters mostly under symbolic names, "The Friend," "The Saint," "Poesy," while his wife, to denote the hopeless philistinism of her character, receives the nickname "The Good-Natured One"; and a separation from her, or rather lamentations over the impossibility of a separation from her, become again the burden of Creuzer's talk:

"Is it right, or is it cruel, that a woman who has lived through the natural course of her history in the love of her first husband, in children who adore her, in children's children whom she is looking forward to—that this woman should insist that a young man is to find the aim of his life in brightening and warming a little, like a wintry sun, the late autumn and November days of her existence? It is right! He might have known it in advance. Still, my heart, still! It is right! Oh, if she only could be a little large-minded—or thoroughly bad! But this agonizing good-nature!"

It is not quite clear what ripened in Sophie for a second time the decision to give way to her favored rival. Enough that, in September, 1805, she took this decision: she wrote to Karoline sanctioning her relation with Creuzer, and expressing the hope that he soon might be entirely hers. Creuzer on his part even goes so far as to address Karoline as his "beloved wife"; he speaks of the formal dissolution of his marriage as soon to be brought about; he reports a plan to accept a professorship at the University of Moscow so as to spare his young bride the difficulties of living with him in the old surroundings: all the clouds seem to be chased away, the happiness of the lovers seems assured. All of a sudden there is a change in the tone of Creuzer's letters. He begins to feel that Karoline is too good for him, that he does not deserve her; he mentions financial difficulties that stand in the way of a speedy marriage; he seems to think that Karoline has no natural taste for the duties of a housewife; he has heard a rumor that Karoline does not intend to live with him as a wife, but plans to accompany him to Russia in men's clothes as a student friend; he has talked with his friend Savigny about the matter, who has convinced him that a separation from Sophie would be a moral wrong. In brief, only two months after his wife has expressed her willingness to release him, he has practically broken off with Karoline; and it is Karoline, not Sophie, who sends him the following letter of resignation:

"My whole life remains for ever consecrated to thee, beloved sweet friend. Nor time nor circumstance shall step between us. The loss of thy love I should not be able to bear. Promise me never to leave me. O life of my life, do not leave my soul.—See, I feel freer and purer since I have renounced all earthly hope. Into hallowed melancholy has the violent grief been dissolved. Fate is conquered. Thou art mine, above all fate. Nothing can take thee from me, since I have won thee in such a manner.—Try to gain Sophie's confidence. Tell her that we have resigned. I, too, shall write her, in order that peace may be restored to the household and she not disturb our relation, which has no longer any danger for her."

It seems incredible that Creuzer's sense of honor should not have been sufficient to make him respect the obligations laid upon him by such an appeal as this. Instead of helping Karoline to live up to her noble renunciation, instead of silencing once for all his own unruly longings, he now more than ever relapses into his habitual wavering between sentimental lamentations and passionate protestations of love. On Christmas eve he feels in the midst of his family "like a pilgrim who, on his way to the Holy Land, has been captured by a people that worships other gods." In the Christmas vacation he goes on with his 'Symbolik' in constant thought of the fair friend to whom, he hopes, this book will be something of a compensation for all the pain he has given her. In the following April (1806) he visits her in Frankfort, and after his departure he revels in ecstatic memories of their meeting and in mournful complaints about his present loneliness: "Ah, nothing will ever satisfy me but this dear, palpable nearness, from which I now have been torn away. The present stares blankly at me: back into the joys of the past my spirit longs to turn. *O sanctissima virgo, tecum moriar libens.*" In June he is in Mannheim and is taken by a friend to the point where the Neckar River flows into the Rhine. "It is a beautiful place, and I saw with deep emotion how the two rivers embrace each other. The impatient longing with which they hasten towards one another was to me a symbol of our life. Ah, the fortunate ones, I thought, to attain thus to the goal of their desires! Sadly I went away." And when, after all these appeals to the emotion, Karoline indeed seems to lose her self-control and to respond in the same passionate vein, how does he receive this?

"For heaven's sake, Lina, do not abandon yourself to such storms of passion! I have burnt all that you wrote to-day, praying for your tranquillity of mind while the flames were consuming your pages.—Beloved, I owe you a large debt, a debt equal to the value of my own life; but quiet you owe to me, and you will give me quiet when you see that you owe it to yourself."

We hasten to the end. On June 29 or 30 a last meeting of the lovers took place. With what feelings they saw each other, in what a frame of mind they separated, we are unable to tell. Immediately after it Creuzer fell into a violent fever. During his sickness his friends prevailed upon him to make a solemn declaration that he would completely and irrevocably break off his relations with Karoline. One of these friends took it upon himself to inform Karoline of this decision. In order to break the cruel news to her in as gentle a manner as possible, the letter containing it was addressed to a friend of Karoline's with whom she was at the time sojourning. These measures of precaution were frustrated. Karoline, who for weeks had been waiting for a letter from Creuzer, hastened to meet the messenger, took the letter, opened it in her room, and read—her death-warrant. She soon came back from her room, apparently undisturbed, took leave of her friend for a short evening walk such as she was in the habit of taking, but did not return. On the next morning her body was found on the banks of the Rhine. She had stabbed herself with the dagger which for some time previous she had been carrying about her.

Two months after the death of Karoline von Günderode the battle of Jena was fought. Little as these events seem to have in common with each other, it is yet true that the battle of Jena exerted a profound influence on the whole moral and intellectual atmosphere which determined the tragic fate of the romantic poetess. In the national breakdown, in the utter ruin of its political existence, the German people recovered its sense of moral dignity and discipline which had been obscured by the flighty conceptions of an exclusively æsthetic culture; and the Creuzers and Günderodes were superseded by the Steins and the Fichtes. KUNO FRANCKE.

Correspondence.

ORIGIN OF THE NATIONAL DEMOCRACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It will be generally admitted that without the organization of the sound-money Democrats of Illinois, the National Democratic ticket would not now be in the political field. In this view, the origin of that organization is important politically, and perhaps historically. Like many other movements, its rise grew out of a trivial circumstance. The Wau-ban-see Club, an association of Democrats in one of the divisions of Chicago known as the North Side, was, in the winter of 1894-'95 and the spring of 1895, short of funds. It was proposed by Mr. H. S. Robbins at a meeting of the directors of that club to give a dinner, to be known as a sound-money banquet, as a means of raising money. The proposition met with favor, a meeting of the club was called, and many hours were spent in the discussion of the very issues which are the burning questions of the present campaign; and, as the result of that discussion, those inclined to the free-silver view were either converted or silenced, for the proposed sound-money banquet was unanimously approved, in February, 1895. The banquet was held, and Senator Palmer was the principal speaker; and, as a result, the Illinois Honest-Money League was formed, with branches throughout the State, the members of which declared themselves unalterably opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1.

Mr. H. S. Robbins was the president of this league, and continued the work thus begun at the Wau-ban-see Club. The influence of the organization was such that, in the spring of 1896, the Democratic machinery of the State, under the leadership of Gov. Altgeld, fearing an honest vote in Chicago, refused honest primaries, and instituted what are known as "brace primaries," in order to disfranchise the Democracy of Chicago. This done, the rest of the State was easily carried for free silver. But, instead of meekly bowing to intimidation and repudiation, as the Democracy of other States have done, the sound-money Democracy of Chicago replied by putting in the field, two months before the Chicago convention, a full county ticket, and then and

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there elected delegates to a State convention, although none had at that time been called.

Subsequent events have justified that action. The intention to place national honor and prosperity above party was the keynote of the movement from the Wau-ban-see Club banquet to the hour the Auditorium conference called upon the Democracy of the United States to meet at Indianapolis to summon a national convention. Without the organization thus effected, it is highly probable that Democratic opposition to the surrender of the party to the new Populist principles would have resulted in nothing more than individual protests, and the Chicago convention would then have marked the grave of the party of Thomas Jefferson. LYNDEN EVANS.

CHICAGO, September 19, 1896.

McKINLEY AND BRYAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: After McKinley's election—what? If times improve, protection will get all the credit, and that incubus will be fixed on us for another generation. If the millennium does *not* come, the reaction will make the silver craze stronger in 1900 than it is now. As I watch the elements that are gathering around McKinley, I doubt whether we have anything more than a choice of equal evils; or whether even the plunge with Bryan into free silver, and the sharp, decisive cure that would inevitably follow, would not be the shortest and best way out of the dilemma.

I have favored the single gold standard for forty years, and have been a subscriber to the *Nation* from its origin, but I am sorry to see my favorite paper copy the *Tribune* so closely in campaign methods and become blind to all the evils and absurdities on one side. For instance, you pay your respects to Bryan's canvassing tour, but I have not seen any characterization of the cheap-John tariff excursions to McKinley. But I hope that when political lunacy abates in November we shall have the old *Nation* again—clear, keen, merciless, but *fair*. WM. PITTENGER.

FALLBROOK, CAL., September 18, 1896.

[Nobody knows better than Mr. McKinley that his tariff talk in this campaign is pure buncombe, on which it would be a waste of breath to comment. If he were dumb on this topic, he would still remain the protectionist that we knew him to be on the day of his nomination, when we had to make up our minds to him as the saviour of society in the present crisis. There is doubtless a want of worldly wisdom in speaking out his views with a chance of offending Democratic supporters; but this is not, in our opinion, the feature of his utterances which justifies our correspondent in affirming "a choice of equal evils." It is rather that, at a time when men who have stolen a State Senate preside for Bryan in New York and at Buffalo, McKinley fulsomely praises to a Pennsylvania delegation Quay, who looted a State Treasury.—ED. NATION.]

GREENBACKS AND DEPRECIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of September 24, p. 230, you say of "demand notes," in an editorial comment, that "they were never at par with gold." This I cannot gainsay; but, as an illustration of how demand notes passed in New York among the community, in the lesser affairs of life, I give this bit of personal experience:

In July, 1862, I returned from the front disabled. Not knowing of the financial changes which had come, I went into a shop and asked the owner to give me "change for a dollar." He did so courteously, remarking, however, that while it was a pleasure to do this for a wounded officer just back from the front, he wouldn't do it for a citizen. I asked why not, and he informed me that specie was at a premium. I offered to pay the premium, but that he flatly refused to take from a wounded soldier. I was in uniform, one arm was in a sling, and disabled soldiers were then a novelty in New York. Not wishing to get "change" in this way, I went into an exchange office on Broadway, nearly opposite the Astor House, threw down a ten-dollar greenback, and said that I wished to buy fractional silver. The broker handed me ten dollars in silver. I asked, in some surprise, if he did not mean to charge me anything for silver; and he answered no, that I had given him a demand note, and that demand notes were as good as specie. This was the first time that I had heard of "demand notes," and until then I had not known that the Government had issued two kinds of greenbacks. In December, 1862, I was again in New York, and then found that people were paying their omnibus fares with postage stamps. Silver had entirely disappeared.

An article showing chronologically the monetary changes in every-day life which took place in 1861-2—the disappearance of silver, the use of postage stamps, the substitution of postal notes, the advent of Treasury fractional notes, and the changing prices of ordinary things stated in both gold and greenbacks—would be an interesting article at this time to the younger generation of your readers.

C. C. N.

WILLIAMSTOWN, MASS., September 25, 1896.

[Our correspondent is doubtless correct in his recollection of the use of old demand notes in ordinary exchanges. These notes were necessarily at some premium, as compared with legal-tenders which were not receivable for duties. But the "custom-house demand notes" were never at par with gold. We transcribe the following market quotations from the New York daily papers of the period:

1862.	Gold.	Old demand notes.
June 30.....	109 @109⅛	104¾@105
July 15.....	116	107⅜
July 21.....	119¾	108
July 25.....	116⅝	106¾

—ED. NATION.]

BISMARCK AND SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Bryan appears to set great store by the letter which Gov. Culberson of Texas has received from Prince Bismarck. The "People's Friend" is willing to receive advice from the Man of Blood and Iron, and the "Champion of the American Farmer" listens to that famous friend of American agriculture who shut the German ports to American pork in 1884 and to American potatoes in 1885, who would gladly have united all central Europe in a customs league aimed directly against all American produce. Bismarck's rather diplomatic letter is taken by Mr. Bryan in his recent speeches to favor the free coinage of silver by the United States.

The devotion of Chancellor Bismarck to the cause of silver may be seen in the following historical fact, which appears to have escaped general notice: Under his guidance as Chancellor of the Empire and Minister of Commerce for Prussia, the equivalent of 1,080,000,000 marks (over $270,000,000) in silver was demonetized between the years 1874 and 1881, and over $160,000,000 worth of the bullion into which these were melted had been sold by 1879. In that year, finding that the price of silver was becoming demoralized, so that his remaining $109,000,000 was depreciating, he stopped sales by a decree issued in May, 1879. These points were frankly stated by his delegates to the International Monetary Conference of 1881, when Germany likewise offered to suspend sales for a time in order that the price might not be further depressed. With these assurances before the monetary powers, and with the decree of May, 1879, still in force, Bismarck saw an opportunity of dumping some German silver on the sly, and promptly proceeded to do so. In 1885 the Egyptian Government decided to change its coinage and invited bids for contracts to coin its silver piastres. The German mint secured the contract to make the coin, and incidentally furnished $2,189,600 of silver bullion to Egypt. The matter was kept very quiet or escaped general notice. Reference to it will be found, however, in the London *Economist* of December 4, 1886, which saw in it a proof of Bismarck's lack of faith in silver.

With all his faults, Bismarck is a sturdy patriot. To help the German distiller he was willing to see trichinæ in every American pig, and to protect the German farmer he smelt bugs on every American potato. Germany has to-day $107,000,000 worth of silver whose value is declining; if the United States could be induced to follow the example of Egypt, and give Germany a chance to do some more unloading, where is the harm, from the ex-Chancellor's point of view, in writing a letter of not entirely disinterested advice?

MORRIS LOEB.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, September 25.

VIRCHOW MISQUOTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While reading 'Evolution and Dogma,' a work recently published by the Rev. J. A. Zahm (Chicago: McBride & Co., 1896), I hit with great surprise on the following sentence (p. 210): "Virchow and others declared Evolution responsible not only for the attempts made by Hödel and Nobiling on the life of the Emperor of Germany, but also for all the miseries and horrors of the Paris Commune." There is no reference given. Having gone through most of Prof. Virchow's works, and not remembering any such utterance from the great German naturalist, I wrote to him, asking where the passage occurred, and if it occurred at all. Here is Prof. Virchow's answer:

"Was Sie mir als Aussage des R. F. Zahm schreiben, ist von Anfang bis zu Ende unwahr. Ich habe über die Verwerthung der Descendenztheorie durch die Socialisten nur einmal etwas gesagt. Es war das in der wahrscheinlich auch Ihnen bekannten Rede gegen Haeckel, die ich auf der Naturforscher-Versammlung zu München gehalten habe. Mit

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dem, was der R. F. mich sagen lässt, hat es nicht die mindeste Aehnlichkeit."

Surely, popular writers ought to ascertain the facts before they attribute stupid and odious sayings to an illustrious scientist.

Yours truly, SALOMON REINACH.

SAINT-GERMAIN-EN-LAYE, September 11, 1896.

"PROFITABLE SCIENCE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent article under the above caption, you call attention to the clamor that is going up in England, the originator of so much that is great in science, for reorganization and extension of her schools of science. The cause of this agitation you point out—the appearance in English markets of a host of products bearing the legend "Made in Germany."

But what connection is there between science and "Made in Germany"? That you also point out. In her great universities, Germany has provided a home and breeding-ground for scholars and investigators, a place where they enjoy full and free scope for the exercise of their genius, secure of their footing and *daily bread*, and therefore little concerned whose "views"—prince's, Pope's, or pastor's—they may jostle. The universities train up and send out a never-ending procession of thinkers and investigators, many of whom bring their knowledge and skill to bear on problems of art, manufactures, and trade. Both in and out of the universities great discoveries have been made, and are being made, new processes invented, old ones improved; old industries have been revolutionized, new ones created. Hence it is that Germany is invading and capturing markets previously regarded as the perquisite of England. Thus it happens that the German scientist is doing what our bimetallists have longed to do but could not—bringing "England to her knees."

You very justly remark:

"Science is not merely a thing for spectacled professors to dabble in, but is profitable in mart and manufacture. It is the true transmuter of dross into gold. A near-sighted German professor works away in his laboratory for a few years, and comes out with an invention which has not only a fortune in it for himself, but a revolution in it for some great industry."

No one will begrudge the professor his good luck if, in the course of his work, he makes a discovery which has "a fortune in it for himself" and not alone for the other fellow. But it should not be forgotten that it is the chief glory of science in the German universities, as of true science everywhere, that it is not pursued primarily because it is profitable in the sense of there being a fortune in it. The most fruitful inventions and discoveries with which the "spectacled *professors have come out*" have rarely been *patentable* even, much less pecuniarily profitable, except in the long run and to mankind at large. Witness the great discoveries of Pasteur. Witness Kekulé's great invention, the Benzine Theory, given to the world in 1865. Of this latter it was said by one in the highest degree competent, both from a scientific and an industrial point of view, to pass judgment, "Mit Kekulé's genialer Theorie war auch für die Technik eine neue Zeit gekommen." It is known to your readers that the branch of chemistry called "aromatic," with its thousands of new compounds (including the coal-tar dyes and medicaments), is the outcome of that theory. It is also known to them that the manufacture of coal-tar dyes is worth to Germany alone many millions of dollars annually. Yet Kekulé, in all the long years of a laborious life devoted to science, gave no thought to the question of "profit." What he has said on that point has *not, that I am aware, found its way into the* newspapers; and even though it has, it is interesting, instructive, and "profitable," and therefore worth repeating.

In 1890 a great jubilee in his honor was held in Berlin. Delegates from all parts of Germany, from England, America, and other countries, assembled to pay him tribute. Among them were representatives of the coal-tar industries, who presented, along with their address, an oil portrait of the professor. In response to their congratulations, Kekulé said:

"I cannot deny that many of my investigations and also the benzine theory have been of benefit to the manufacture of the coal-tar dyes; but I can assure you that I have never worked for technology, but always for science only. I have ever had a great interest in technology, but have never drawn interest [income] from her. Precisely for that reason, I am doubly rejoiced and doubly thankful that the representatives of technology wish to recognize my small merit in behalf of technology."

Truly, science is *most* profitable when she is *least* profitable. J. M. PICKEL.

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA, September 21, 1896.

THE SCOTT KENILWORTH LEGEND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having this summer, during a short stay at Kenilworth, occupied the chamber at the "King's Arms" which is called "Sir Walter Scott's Room," I have been interested in the sceptical comments which your correspondent "W. E." makes upon a passage in Mrs. Navarro's 'Few Memories' (*Nation*, September 24, p. 231). The story at the inn is that Scott, coming there *incognito*, wrote there the first sketch of the novel. I will not defend a legend simply because I have seen its local habitation, especially when it appears to have two local habitations (for Mrs. Navarro speaks of "the humble little cottage which had sheltered Walter Scott," etc., and not of a conspicuous inn). It is also quite true that Lockhart mentions no such visit; and indeed none such took place in 1820. But it is perhaps worth while to point out that Scott did in fact visit Kenilworth not very long before he wrote the novel. In the 'Journal' (*ii.*, 153), under date of 1828, he says: "We visited Kenilworth. . . . The last time I was here, in 1815, these trophies of time were," etc. Moreover, Charles Knight, in 1843, in his 'William Shakspere: A Biography' (p. 89), says, speaking of the castle: "Some twenty-five years ago a man of middle age, with a lofty forehead and a keen gray eye, slightly lame but withal active, entered its gatehouse, and, having looked upon the only bit of carving left to tell something of interior magnificence, passed into those ruins, and stood there silent for some two hours." His authority for the statement is cited in a footnote, thus:

"A few years ago there was a venerable and intelligent farmer, Mr. Bonington, living in the gatehouse at Kenilworth. He remembered Scott's visit, although he knew not at the time of the visit who he was; and the frank manners and keen inquiries of the great novelist left an impression upon him which he described to us. The old man is dead."

It seems, then, that Miss Anderson was not wholly victimized, even though legends have grown around the story. What Lockhart says respecting the genesis of 'Kenilworth,' though it cuts off the possibility that the first sketch was written in the Warwickshire village, still leaves it open to us to imagine that the first thought of writing a novel upon the *familiar story of Amy Robsart* came to Scott at the time of his visit in 1815.

J. F. JAMESON.

PROVIDENCE, September 28, 1896.

A NEWS CHRONICLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of August 13, Mr. Henry T. Terry of Tokio, Japan, asks for a journal of contemporary history in a form adapted for binding, and suggests that the *Nation* undertake such an enterprise. Permit me to suggest that there is already a quarterly magazine which substantially covers the ground. It is called *Current History*, and is published by Garretson Cox & Co., Buffalo, N. Y., at $1.50 per annum, as a supplement to their 'Columbian Cyclopædia.' Of this latter publication, in thirty-two small volumes, I cannot speak too highly, having tested it for over two years; and the *Current History* bears marks of the same diligent research, careful composition, and honest purpose.

Truly yours,

ISABELLA BEECHER HOOKER.

HARTFORD, CONN., September 22, 1896.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly correct the statement which appeared in the *Nation* for September 3 that I made all the drawings in Mrs. Oliphant's 'Rome'? Even the title-page maintains that I did not.

And also may I be allowed, with all due deference to your critic, to state that none of the drawings were done from photographs, but that they were all made from nature in the city of Rome, whither I was sent by Messrs. Macmillan specially for the purpose?

Yours truly, JOSEPH PENNELL.

14 BUCKINGHAM STREET, STRAND, W. C., LONDON, September 18, 1896.

Notes.

HERBERT S. STONE & Co., Chicago, have in preparation 'Curious Punishments of Bygone Days,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, with drawings by Frank Hazenplug; 'The Fatal Gift of Beauty,' short stories by C. E. Raimond; 'Miss Ayr of Virginia,' short stories by Miss Julia Magruder; 'What Maisie Knew,' a novelette by Henry James; 'In Buncombe County,' by Maria Louise Pool; a second series of 'Prose Fancies,' by Richard Le Gallienne; '*Chap-Book* Stories,' by Octave Thanet and others, and '*Chap-Book* Essays,' by T. W. Higginson and others—reprints from the magazine of that name; and 'The Land of the Castanet,' by H. C. Chatfield-Taylor.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will issue 'Audiences,' apparently ready-made judgments in art; and 'National Epics,' a condensation.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, will soon bring out 'A Pilgrimage to Beethoven,' by Richard Wagner; 'Christianity and Patriotism,' by Count Tolstoi; 'Ancient India: Its Language and Religion,' by Prof. H. Oldenberg; a new translation of Lao-

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Tsze's 'Tao-Teh-King'; Gustav Freytag's 'Luther'; and a 'History of English Secularism,' by George Jacob Holyoake.

Stone & Kimball announce 'Urban Dialogues,' by Louis E. Shipman, with illustrations by C. D. Gibson; and 'Grip,' by John Strange Winter.

Additional announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are the Complete Works of George Meredith, in 34 volumes; 'Complete Poems,' by H. C. Bunner; 'The Out-of-Door Library,' angling articles from *Scribner's Magazine*, to be followed by a hunting volume, both illustrated; 'Periods of European Literature,' in 12 volumes, edited by Prof. George Saintsbury; a new edition of the Bryant-Gay 'History of the United States,' expanded from four into five volumes, and brought down to date by Noah Brooks, with 1,600 illustrations; a new edition of Dr. S. Wells Williams's 'History of China,' continued by his son, Frederick Wells Williams; 'The Near East,' by Henry Norman; 'Europe in the Middle Ages,' by Profs. Oliver J. Thacher and Ferdinand Schwill of the University of Chicago; Émile Bourgeois's 'France under Louis XIV.,' with profuse illustrations; 'My Village'—in rural France—by E. Boyd Smith, with the author's designs; 'An Illustrated Flora'—of the Northern United States and the British Possessions—by Prof. N. L. Britton and Addison Brown; 'How to Listen to Music,' by H. E. Krehbiel; 'Songs of Childhood,' by Eugene Field, set to music by Reginald de Koven and others; 'The Sprightly Romance of Marsac,' by Molly Elliot Seawell; 'That First Affair, and Other Sketches,' by J. A. Mitchell; 'Colonial Days in Old New York,' by Alice Morse Earle; 'The Sense of Beauty,' by George Santayana; 'John Gibson Lockhart,' by Andrew Lang; 'Jesus Christ before his Ministry,' by Prof. Edmond Stapfer; and an 'Introduction to Sociology,' by Arthur Fairbanks.

The Century Co. will issue directly 'The Metropolitans,' a satire of New York society, by Jeanie Drake; a romance of Louisiana, 'The Wonderful Wheel,' by Marie Tracy Earle; a Dutch-Indian novel, 'Gold,' by Annie Linden; 'Break o' Day,' by George Wharton Edwards; and 'A Shadow Show,' reversible color prints, by Peter S. Newell.

'Soap Bubbles,' ten stories by Max Nordau, and 'The Conspiracy of Carbonari,' by Louisa Mühlbach, translated by Mary J. Safford, are in the press of F. Tennyson Neely.

A popular 'Star Atlas,' by Prof. Winslow Upton of Brown University, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

Under the title of 'The Scot in America' (Raeburn Book Co.), Dr. Peter Ross has brought together, chiefly in the form of biographical sketches, a considerable amount of information regarding persons of Scotch descent who have attained more or less of prominence in this country. Some of the information is entertaining and some of it appears to be new; but although the author claims to have had access to "original sources," and has evidently been industrious, his book cannot be counted a very important contribution to the interesting subject of Scotch influence on American life. A plentiful use of slang fails to enliven Dr. Ross's style, while his fondness for moralizing on all sorts of themes, from the annexation of Canada to newspaper criticism of art, is at once irritating and wearisome. The index of names shows many omissions.

In his 'Studies in the Hegelian Dialectic' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan), Mr. MacTaggart distinguishes himself among living philosophers as at once one of the most reverent of students, most ingenious of interpreters, and subtlest of defenders of Hegel. He sets out by expounding the "secret of Hegel," the real meaning of the Dialectic. According to him, it is the course of thought in restoring the concreteness from which the sciences have abstracted, and it is the experience of reality which constrains thought to do this. He next discusses, often with a subtlety worthy of the best days of scholasticism, the objections, ancient and modern, which have been brought against Hegel and all his works, and the Dialectic Method in particular. Hegel apparently emerges from this ordeal triumphant and unscathed. But the final chapters show that his disciple has been converted into a critic who proceeds to demonstrate, respectfully but firmly, that Hegel failed in the application of his own method, and to draw conclusions which, in spite of their Hegelian spirit, he has to admit are not Hegel's. The course of these last chapters sometimes raises doubts as to whether the interpretations "in the spirit of Hegel" do not depart dangerously far from his letter; whether the criticisms do not come inconveniently near to objections set aside before; and whether the further conclusions drawn do not follow more easily and naturally from philosophic principles quite other than Hegel's. But, for all this, there can be no doubt that Mr. MacTaggart's book deserves to be carefully studied by all who are concerned to make something more out of Hegel than a big catchword.

A remarkably vivid picture of the highest social life in France and Italy during the latter half of the seventeenth century is given in Lucien Perey's 'Une Princesse Romaine au XVII^{e} Siècle: Marie Mancini Colonna' (Paris: Lévy). Lucien Perey is the pseudonym of a lady already favorably known to the reading public as the author of 'Le Roman du Grand Roi,' in which the romantic love of the youthful monarch Louis XIV. for Marie Mancini, the beautiful and brilliant niece of Cardinal Mazarin, is described. This lady was eventually betrothed to Prince Colonna, High Constable of Naples, and married to him by proxy in the chapel of the Louvre, April 15, 1661. The marriage proved to be a comparatively happy one, but after a few years she left her home in Naples and led a rather itinerant and adventurous life. Her suspicion that her husband intended to poison her, which she gave as the reason of her secret flight, was first suggested by the intriguing Archbishop of Amasia, her husband's uncle; but the slander would never have taken root in her mind as a fixed idea, had it not been for an hereditary tendency to insanity in her family, which manifested itself still more strongly in her sister Hortense, Duchesse de Mazarin, of whose erratic career many curious details, derived from documents in the royal archives of Turin, are printed in the present volume. Marie Mancini Colonna died at Pisa in 1715 at the age of seventy-two.

'La Vie d'un Homme: Carl Vogt,' by William Vogt (Paris: Schleicher Frères; Stuttgart: Nägele) is valuable rather as a collection of biographical material chronologically arranged than as a complete and critical biography. It contains also two portraits of the celebrated naturalist by Otto Vautier.

The statistical and tabular survey of Italian libraries undertaken by the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce has just been completed by the issue of a third part. The first two dealt with Government libraries mainly; the third embraces such as belong to academies and high schools, seminaries, etc., circulating libraries (like the Franklíniana at Rome), and a few private (like our countryman Prof. Willard Fiske's splendid Petrarchan and Icelandic collection at Florence, numbering about 8,900 titles). Others which we may single out for mention are those of several Alpine Clubs, the Whist Society of Turin (dating back to 1841), the Liceo Filarmonico of Bologna (rescued by the French Republic in the year vii. from the break-up of the religious houses), the Dante house in Florence (the 364 volumes being nearly all modern), the École Française at Rome; and the Biblioteca Ferrari-Moreni, devoted exclusively to Modenese works. Perhaps by way of stimulus to better things, place is given to the Biblioteca Piccinni-Ricci at Maglie, though the twin bequests to the district have been neglected for two centuries, and lie in disordered and neglected heaps "in un gran salone della chiesa, di proprietà comunale." As in the preceding parts of this catalogue, the history of each library, its character, size, accessibility, etc., are set forth, and special pains are taken to record by title the chief incunabula. The work as a whole is an honor to the Government and invaluable to students in Italy.

The Consular Reports for August contain an account of the present condition of the pearl fisheries in all parts of the world, with especial reference to the prevailing scarcity of small pearls. This is attributed to various causes, the principal being an increased demand in India and Arabia, and the fact that many of the beds have been overworked. In some the fishing has ceased altogether in order to permit the oysters to grow. It will probably be five years before the Ceylon fishery is resumed. In the Red Sea the native fishermen say that the falling off is due to the want of rain (their belief being that "a pearl is formed from a drop of rain caught in the mouth of a pearl oyster") and to the increase of coasting steamers, which drive away the oysters by the disturbance of the water. Of the pearls sent to foreign markets, London practically takes two-thirds and Paris the remainder, the average annual value being about four and a half million dollars. There is also an exhaustive, but very pessimistic, report on Samoa and its future prospects, the result of a year's experience of Consul-General Mulligan. The character of its soil is such as to make agriculture, its sole resource, unprofitable in case of competition. The growing of coffee, for instance, has steadily declined, and the cultivation of cotton has been abandoned. Copra is practically the only article of export. The political outlook is equally discouraging. The evils which the Berlin treaty was to remedy still exist, and have in fact increased.

The principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September is a sketch of Ashanti by one of the officers of the recent expedition into that country. From it we gather that Ashanti itself contains little natural wealth, agricultural or mineral, and that the advantages gained by its conquest are the abolition of human sacrifice and the opening up a valuable trade with the Hinterland.

The *Geographical Journal* for September opens with two very suggestive articles on the Hausa territories in the Central Sudan, by a missionary and the agent-general of the Royal Niger Company. From their joint testimony it is probable that this is the most promising region in tropical Africa, Uganda not except-

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ed. The greater part of the natives, numbering some fifteen millions, are industrious, loving work for the work's sake. The average daily attendance in the market of their commercial capital is from 25,000 to 30,000, and Kano cloth, made from native-grown cotton, is to be bought throughout northern Africa from Lagos to Alexandria. The chief obstacles to the development of this country, rich in natural resources, are slave-raiding, the currency, and the want of roads, all of which are curiously related. The only recognized currency consists of cowries, of which the equivalent of two and a half dollars "weighs something like one hundred pounds." Consequently large sums, as the tribute of a chief to the king, are paid in slaves, who are obtained by raiding, not hostile tribes, but their own villages. Then, from the lack of roads, everything has to be carried on men's heads, and the porters are almost universally slaves. It is estimated that the "slave population numbers at least five millions, or, to put it in another way, that one out of every three hundred people now living in the world is a Hausa-speaking slave." The agent-general says that he travelled through a district, once very populous, for a distance of seventy miles and did not meet a single human being, in consequence of slave-raiding. In the conclusion of Dr. Donaldson Smith's account of his journey through Somaliland (remarkable for his extraordinary natural-history collection, in which were twenty-four new species of birds alone), it is interesting to note that he ascribes the hearty welcome given him by a tribe to the fact that "they had heard of the kindness shown by Mr. Astor Chanler" to fellow-tribesmen living eleven days' journey distant.

We have received from J. L. Smith, No. 27 South Sixth Street, Philadelphia, a colored map of Cuba on a scale of twenty-five miles to the inch. Side maps represent the city and province of Havana on a larger scale, and "manifest destiny" is implied in two hemispheres showing Spain's shrunken possessions in America at the present day compared with a century ago.

Amongst the appointments for the year to science-research scholarships in Great Britain, made (from the 1851 Exhibition Fund) by Royal Commissioners, on the recommendation of the respective colleges and universities, it is interesting to note that University College, Bristol, is represented by a woman, Miss Emily C. Fortey. These scholarships have an annual value of £150, and are ordinarily held for two years ("subject to a satisfactory report at end of first year") in any educational institution in Great Britain, or on the Continent, approved by the Commissioners. The holders devote their time to study or research in some branch of science the extension of which has industrial or commercial value. As further illustration of the substantial way in which good work by women is being accorded recognition, we note that the London School of Economics and Political Economy has recently awarded three, out of five, research scholarships to women, of whom one has been trained at Somerville Hall, Oxford, and two at Girton College, Cambridge.

The next meeting of the Central Division of the Modern Language Association of America will occur between Christmas and New Year at St. Louis, Mo. Those wishing to read papers are requested to address Prof. G. Karsten, Bloomington, Ind., as soon as possible. Membership is open to any one interested in the study of modern languages. Further details will be announced later.

—A pamphlet issued by the Royal Society of Canada on 'The Discovery of America by John Cabot in 1497' (Ottawa, 1896) indicates the Society's purpose to celebrate in the summer of 1897 the four-hundredth anniversary of that event. The brochure prints commendations of the movement by Sir Clements Markham, Mr. Winsor, and the historian Harvey of Newfoundland. It also gives a report of a committee of the Society, by which it appears that the commemorative exercises will be held at Halifax next June, with a subsequent excursion to Cape Breton for the purpose of dedicating a monument. The committee wish it understood that, in erecting the memorial at the entrance of the harbor of Sydney, they do not commit the Society to any theory as to the landfall, but simply select a commanding headland, on the eastern coast of the Dominion, facing the broad ocean over which Cabot voyaged for the momentous discovery. The exact spot whereon he reared the royal standard in token of possession for Henry VII. is not likely to be determined to the satisfaction of everybody. Indeed, both the place and date of the landfall are in dispute. The discussion of these questions turns on the credibility of the legends found on the well-known Cabot map. This document places the discovery on June 24, 1497, at the island of Cape Breton. Before the unearthing of this map in 1843, the general belief had been in favor of the Labrador coast. To this older theory Harrisse now adheres, almost alone, and he charges deceit in the matter of the map in placing the discovery at Cape Breton, for the purpose of supporting the English claim to that region against that of France, then recently emphasized by the discoveries of Cartier. The Newfoundland theory of the landfall has been mainly advocated by the writers of that island, notably of late by Judge Prowse. The supporters of the Cape Breton theory have generally favored the northernmost point of that island, against which the legend on the Cabot map is placed. A year or two ago Dr. Samuel E. Dawson of Ottawa advocated before the Royal Society a belief in the southeastern point of that island as the true landfall, being the original *Cape* Breton of the early maps. In the present tract the same writer reinforces this belief in a new essay, and controverts the ground of Judge Prowse's opinion that Cape Bonavista, on the outer coast of Newfoundland, has the better claim to recognition. Steps have already been taken to have, on the same day, a similar commemoration at Bristol, England, the port whence Cabot sailed, with reciprocal exchange of communications by cable. This movement is under the direction of the mayor of that city, a gentleman who has long had commercial connections with America. The American Consul at that port, Mr. Lorin Lothrop, is lending his assistance, and the project is likely to interest the great body of American residents in England.

—A most amiable Neapolitan "publiciste," as he styles himself in his preferred language, Prof. Gabriel de Rosa-Rullo, domiciled at No. 52 in the Street of the Holy Sepulchre, appears, from his autographic correspondence before us, to have a "pull" on the Académie Littéraire et Scientifique du Hainaut. Of this institution we cannot speak with confidence, since it goes unnoticed in *Minerva*. But our publicist signs himself *délégué général* of it, and, on his proposing, the Academy appears to be in the habit of conferring degrees on persons unknown alike to it and to the proponent. A president of one of our Western universities was surprised the other day by a polite note from Prof. Gabriel, informing him that by the above process he, the said president, had been appointed "Président d'honneur et Professeur Emérite" by the "Conseil Universitaire" of the Academy, and at the same time awarded "la Medaille de Mérite de première Classe." From an entire stranger this was very handsome and unexpected, but diploma and medal are to be forwarded only on acceptance—which indicates a flattering doubt of American greed for titular distinction. Meanwhile, however, as an accompanying *printed form* shows, Prof. Gabriel de Rosa-Rullo is not above suggesting a little *quid pro quo;* for he says he would accept in return, "avec gratitude et par relation amicale," a diploma of Professor Emeritus or Doctor Honoris Causa from the American university, in any one of the faculties (the modest man!) of Law, Philosophy and Letters, or Social and Political Science. The exchange is incomplete, we regret to say for the credit of American manners; but perhaps the Minister of Public Instruction in Italy would do well to keep an eye on Prof. Gabriel, whose letter-sheet proclaims him corresponding member of five academies, institutes, and unions, as well as "Avocat de Saint Pierre, Jurisconsulte du Collège de Saint Ive de la 'Sacra Romana Curia.'" Is there no law against gluttony in Italy?

—The German habit of introspection manifests itself in numberless newspaper articles on newspapers. To the average American editor there is something amusing in these solemn attempts to fathom the mysteries of the profession, to expound the mission of the newspaper, and to draw the boundary line between journalism and literature. The latest attempt to grapple with the subject is made by a writer in the September number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, who discusses "The Daily Press in its relations to Current Intellectual Life," without adding much that is new or valuable to previous expositions. It is, however, interesting to see him reinforce the charge that the newspaper stifles independent thinking, by the argument that too much prominence is given to the editorial article, which generally occupies the first place in a German daily, and thus provides the reader with a ready-made opinion before he has heard of the event on which the article is based. The news proper, which the American reader craves above and before everything, is relegated by the German newspaper to the inside pages. That the habit of newspaper reading interferes with book reading, and thus with the acquisition of exact knowledge, is as true of Germany as it is of this country; but probably few thoughtful newspaper readers on this side of the ocean will agree with the *Rundschau* writer that the daily press consumes an "appalling amount of talent" (*erschrecklich viel Talente*). It ought to be said, perhaps, that the writer of the article, Dr. Emil Löbl, is a Viennese, and doubtless had the *Neue Freie Presse* in mind in this passage: "He who knows what a large sum total of knowledge and experience, of wit and wisdom, is being dealt out daily, in small coin, in the columns of the press, cannot doubt that out of such a fund of intellectual power might be created most valuable and lasting works in literature and science, provided that power could be concentrated."

—On the other hand, American (and English) newspapers of the better class are not open to

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the charge, so often brought against German newspapers, of corrupting the language in which they are written. German custom has never exacted from the newspaper writer strict adherence to classic canons. Nor, as Herr Löbl remarks, are loose stylistic practices confined to the newspapers. "Every reader whose sense of language is highly developed will admit that the number of correctly written books is constantly lessening, while those whose style may be called perfect have at all times been very few indeed." The problem of how to educate the educators of public opinion is touched upon but not solved by the writer. There will always be those who maintain that the true journalist is born and not made; to those who demand that "he who wields so pointed an instrument as the press should know how to use it," Herr Löbl commends the example of the Bulgarian Sobranye, which recently decreed that no one could become a journalist who had not at least passed through all the classes of a gymnasium. The journalists themselves evidently incline to the former view, for when the question of a special preparation for their calling was brought before the International Congress of Journalists at Antwerp, that body refused to discuss the matter. Nevertheless, an attempt to supply a few finishing touches to native genius, through the establishment of "professorships of journalism," has been made in Europe as in this country, the University of Lille having instituted a course of three lectures introductory to journalism—one on "the great English publicists," one on "press laws," and one on "duties and practice of journalism" (the last by M. Tavernier, editor of the Paris *Univers*).

—Prof. Shorey would not thank us for attempting a résumé of his study on 'The Idea of Good in Plato's Republic,' which is to appear among the "Studies in Classical Philology" of the University of Chicago. His essay might better be expanded into a volume than condensed into a paragraph. It is a very remarkable piece of work, evincing the scholarship, the wide grasp of speculative philosophy, and the literary taste which seem a necessary equipment for the interpreter of Plato. It really sheds light on the whole purpose of the 'Republic.' Plato's Idea of Good was criticised by Aristotle as a transcendental notion, the contemplation of which could benefit neither cobbler nor carpenter; and the rigid literal spirit of this criticism has been generally followed by later commentators down to Dr. Jowett, who regards Plato's ideal as a mystical, nebulous abstraction, that appears nowhere in the Dialogues outside of the 'Republic.' Dr. Shorey shows that in reality it is a conception which the minor ethical dialogues are intended to illustrate and define, sometimes negatively, sometimes by tentative approaches. It is, in one aspect, an ultimate rule or standard of life, embodied in the social ideals of the Republic, to be evolved, applied, and transmitted by the guardians of the State—the philosopher-statesmen. The virtues are "goods" in so far as they conform to this ideal of good; it is, in fact, the final canon by which the virtues must be tried and classified in the ethical science of Plato. For him and for his State the ideal represents the same sort of ultimate test which the will of God represented for Calvin, the greatest happiness of the greatest number for Bentham, the survival of the species for Spencer and Leslie Stephen. While the citizens of the Republic will practise the virtues "in unthinking conformity with the ethical type which the rulers impose," the rulers themselves "must know the idea of good"—that is, they must have before their minds that ideal of health, harmony, and happiness for the individual and the State which is embodied in the social organization. To these choicest spirits, moulded by a long and severe discipline, by softening and refining influences, by experience in practical affairs, is intrusted the vision of the good; they are the moulders and guardians of the social ideal. The final touch was to be given to their intellectual training by the mastery of the severest and most advanced science of their day—the study of geometry, of mathematics, and of mathematical astronomy. Perhaps, in the present day, Prof. Shorey remarks, Mr. Huxley or Mr. Spencer would substitute a training in Biology for this training in mathematics. "But in what sense," he asks, "is this doctrine less definite or precise than the teaching of modern evolutionist ethics?" Mr. Herbert Spencer virtually follows Plato in postulating an ideal social organism as the ultimate test and type of ethical truth. Leslie Stephen defines virtue as "conformity to the type defined by the healthy condition of the social organization." This is only a return to the doctrine of Plato, save that his idea of good appeals to a higher and nobler order of emotions than the evolutionist's "survival of the species." It is quite clear that Dr. Shorey owes the world a book on the Platonic philosophy; it is equally clear that if such essays, written in such a style, are often repeated, the University of Chicago will be unable to disclaim the imputation of culture which it officially frowns on.

A BAND OF SINGERS.

Story of the Hutchinsons (Tribe of Jesse). By John Wallace Hutchinson. Compiled and edited by Charles E. Mann. With an introduction by Frederick Douglass. 2 vols. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1896.

THOSE who can recall the Hutchinson family in the beginning of their "concerting" are now passing off the stage. The name, however, is still a household word over the greater part of the North, and even on the Pacific Coast, for the "Tribe of Jesse," represented solely now by the author of these memoirs, has subdivided into the Tribe of John, of Asa, and of Judson, and bids fair to interest another generation with its rich gift of song. What can never return is the reformatory epoch in which the Hutchinson brothers and their sister Abby, "from the Old Granite State," "dared," in Frederick Douglass's words, "to sing for a cause first and for cash afterwards." The emotional side of the anti-slavery cause in particular they fostered as hardly any other instrumentality could, heightening the effect of the poetry of Whittier, and even capping the eloquence of Wendell Phillips.

"Phillips," reports N. P. Rogers (the scene is Faneuil Hall, Boston; the date, January, 1843), "had been speaking in his happiest vein. It was towards night. The old hall was sombre in the *glooming*. It was thronged to its vast extremities. Phillips closed his speech at the highest pitch of his fine genius, and retired from the platform, when the four brothers rushed to his place and took up the argument where he had left it, on the very heights of poetic declamation, and carried it off heavenwards on one of their boldest flights. Jesse had framed a series of stanzas on the spot, while Phillips was speaking, embodying the leading arguments, and enforcing them as mere oratory cannot, as music and poetry only can, and they poured them forth with amazing spirit, in one of the maddening Second Advent tunes. The vast multitude sprang to their feet as one man, and at the close of the first strain gave vent to their enthusiasm in a thunder of unrestrained cheering."

That conjunction can no more be revived than slavery. Phillips himself outlived the hardihood of any improvisatore seeking to gild the refined gold of his "poetic declamation," while "Brother John" has fallen upon times when not every cause is as singable as abolition. In 1867, on taking the field in behalf of woman's rights, he says (p. 438)—

"I had been requested to sing as many suffrage songs as possible in the coming campaign [in Kansas], but found on examination that the national hymnology was surprisingly deficient in that class of poetry. I therefore wrote to a large number of our American song-writers, asking contributions to the cause. The responses were not numerous, and so I decided that I must depend largely on my own resources."

Or, as the editor of the Ottumwa *Home Journal* presently put it (i., 454), "they [the Hutchinsons] were apparently hard driven to find poetry the sentiment of which could be made to sustain a proposition so hostile to poetic feeling as is female suffrage, and so their songs upon this subject were original." How successful, may be inferred from the opening lines of John's lyric—

"Who votes for woman suffrage now
Will add new laurels to his brow,"

though it was doubtless carried off by his melodeon and voice. And this qualification is not to be despised. Among the Hutchinson fraternity, Jesse was preëminently the song-writer, and while his verse was almost incredibly mediocre, it could be sung. Rogers went so far as to call him, in 1844, "the most gifted song-writer of the times," who "writes to sing rather than to read," and (since he "writes under the influence of song") whose poetry "*sings* so much better than Pierpont's, or Burleigh's, or Lowell's, or Whittier's, or any of the bards." There was the "Lynn Bard," for instance, Alonzo Lewis, a prominent figure in those fermenting times, and neighbor of the Hutchinsons after (following Jesse's lead) they had clustered about High Rock. "He composed several songs for us," says John (i., 320), "but they lacked the singable quality we desired, and none of them were ever given in public." Whittier, on the other hand, strange to say for the Quaker in him, could be sung, and, before the war, is said to have asked John at Amesbury, "Do you want to know the one desire I have above all others? It is this, that I may so write my verses that they may be sung" (i., 397-8).

He was, in fact, not a little indebted to the Hutchinsons for the popularization of his poetry, and it was his adaptation to the music of "Ein Feste Burg,"

"We wait beneath the furnace blast
The pangs of transformation,"

one of the most stirring lyrics of the war, that the Hutchinsons sang to the Army of the Potomac in January, 1862, under a general permission from Secretary Cameron, till General McClellan ordered them out of the camp almost under the shadow of the Capitol.

"What breaks the oath
Of the men of the South?
What whets the knife
For the Union's life?
Hark to the answer: *Slavery!*"

This was unpalatable truth to a political Democratic general, but it was, we must ad-

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mit, a truth which the North as a whole was still dodging, Lincoln among the rest; nor must we overlook the fact in gauging our censure of McClellan. The incident was promptly noticed in Congress, but the Hutchinsons went no more among the camps, where they might have contributed powerfully to that unity of feeling which was the strength of the Confederate armies.

There is no other episode in these memoirs of like national importance or resonance, but more space is given to the *faux-pas* of our anti-slavery songsters (on the prompting of the impulsive Jesse) in knocking together a song to Henry Clay, "Brave Harry of the West," and seeking him out in a New York hotel to sing it to him, in February, 1848. What consternation this caused in abolition circles may be imagined, and one must praise Brother John for his candor and want of bitterness in the narrative of the censure and ultimate condonation, as well as for gathering in an appendix the contemporary documents in fine print. By this means, too, he distinctly enhances the value of his work as a contribution to the history of the anti-slavery cause—that cause of which Brother Joshua wrote in the name of the family, addressing its present biographer, "as having done more for *us* than we possibly could have done for *it*." But the woman-suffrage cause, as we have seen, and the temperance cause in the earlier and in the later years also find here a chronicler of their machinery, at least, worth the having; and the multitude of details which make the volumes in too large a measure unreadable give them a real value for reference, so many eminent personages on both sides of the Atlantic (for there was a famous trip to England, commemorated by Harriet Martineau in her best manner, and by Mary Howitt in a memoir) enter in. Nor can the history of music in America omit this highly original, rough-gifted band, whose particular genius, Judson, "while an infant upon the floor, was heard to hum distinctly the melody of old Greenville, 'Gently, Lord, O gently lead us.'" Finally, the Yankee character may be here studied to advantage in the annals of a large family, all farmers, who periodically abandon the plough to make a concert tour, then return to their rude occupation; who combine moral zeal and earnestness with the prankishness of boys; who are affected by all the passing speculations and aspirations and manifestations of the age, so that Jesse and Judson nearly lose their mental balance through spiritualism, though Jesse, failing to tunnel down to the pirates' cave in High Rock, is truly guided by a clairvoyant to a living spring. John has for many years made it his "motto to live in one world at a time," but also for years (since 1888) has seen "the good time coming" in Bellamy's Nationalist movement, and has "worked and talked, sung and voted with these reformers." The droll Judson would use the intervals of singing by the quartet to expatiate to his audiences on the evils of tobacco and pork and the virtues of brown bread. The chapter in the second volume which takes up the family in detail, is, in connection with the abundant likenesses of all, most readable and instructive for its types of character frankly delineated. In the appendix will be found some charming examples of Abby's (Mrs. Patton's) private letters, and Harriet Martineau cites a sonnet of Hartley Coleridge "To Alfred Tennyson" after hearing Abby sing the "May Queen." In all the travelling required for John's eleven thousand concerts, adventures were numerous and often most amusing, and the anecdotes scattered up and down these pages relieve many arid extracts from the diaries which form the substantial basis of John Hutchinson's reminiscences. There is some good character-sketching, but none more discriminating than this of Maria Weston Chapman (ii., 137):

"She was the handsomest, most faithful, and active woman who espoused the cause of the slave. I can see her beaming countenance now as she would sit in a prominent place at the conventions. We would go home, and, recalling her presence, the many committees she was placed upon, and her general air of activity, would say, 'Well, Maria Chapman did speak, didn't she?' As a matter of fact, she never spoke."

We cannot close without commending to Southern readers Frederick Douglass's Introduction, and the remarkable letter from George Latimer, who died in Lynn but a short time ago, completely forgotten as a fugitive slave of Union-wide notoriety in 1842, and who asked to use his ransomed freedom only in honestly and modestly earning his daily bread as a paper-hanger in Lynn, till his days in Virginia became "like a dream" to him. The lives of these two men—unequal in intellectual capacity, but alike useful and self-respecting citizens—point on our side of Mason and Dixon's line a moral against the system which made chattels of them, but on the other side will be used to justify the bondage from which they escaped, as a most efficient Christianizing and civilizing agency. *Come va 'l mondo!*

ELIAS BOUDINOT.

The Life, Public Services, Addresses, and Letters of Elias Boudinot, LL.D., President of the Continental Congress. Edited by J. J. Boudinot. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. xvii, 419; vii, 415. Portraits.

In two handsome volumes Miss Jane J. Boudinot has collected what she could gather of the papers of Elias Boudinot. A lawyer by profession, Commissary-General of Prisoners in the Revolution, Member and, for a time, President of the Continental Congress, serving in three Congresses under the Constitution, Director of the Mint, Boudinot was prominent, but never great. He was a sturdy descendant of Huguenots, very philanthropic, doing his duty with attention and ability in whatever line of action he served. His name is connected with no measure of public policy, but he must be counted among those who lent dignity and substance to the early years of the new Government. He was deeply religious, and in the votes cast for two Deists—Jefferson and Burr—and for Dr. Priestley, for chaplain of the House, he saw "substantial evidence of our degenerating from the zeal of our forefathers, who first settled this wilderness," and in consequence felt great alarm.

Such a career becomes interesting in the sidelights it throws upon Revolutionary and political history. Boudinot's letters, few in number, are very simple and natural expressions of facts, and the work has been swelled by the inclusion of his speeches in Congress and letters from William Bradford, who married Boudinot's daughter, and Samuel Bayard, who married his niece. From this correspondence, which consists almost entirely of family letters, little of public interest can be gathered. The basis of the first volume is a manuscript record, now in the John Carter Brown library, quoted as "Reminiscences of Elias Boudinot." This record must have been compiled after 1801, for it mentions Arnold's death. Many little statements, which could be examined critically, tend to prove that Boudinot's memory misled him, as was natural; and there is ever present a kind of detail that makes a "good story" rather than a record of fact. Take his account of the siege of Yorktown. After the French admiral had announced his intention to depart, Washington saw the necessity of storming the British works. Boudinot says that to avoid that necessity Washington sent Hamilton and other officers, with a flag of truce and "something to eat and drink," to meet British officers, and to tell them out of kindly consideration to them how much he disliked to storm and shed blood. The result of this courtesy was the capitulation. Boudinot entirely passes over the fact that the enemy's works were stormed, Hamilton distinguishing himself; besides failing to account for the sending of Hamilton, a lieutenant colonel and unconnected with the General's family, upon such a delicate mission. So, in the sketch of Arnold's treason, Washington is made to ride up to Arnold's door, call out his (Arnold's) aid, and, "drawing his pistol from his holster, solemnly declare he would blow his brains out if he did not instantly tell him where Arnold was." Such an incident would not have been overlooked in the many narrations of Arnold's flight. The whole account of the treason reads like an attempt to record impressions already fading into indefiniteness.

This indefiniteness colors the "Reminiscences," leaving an incomplete and doubting impression. However readable and interesting they may seem, some further proof of details is wanted. Boudinot tells much of a Frenchman who deliberately poisoned numbers of American prisoners in New York, receiving a reward from the British General. The same Frenchman confessed to poisoning the wells used by the Continental "Flying Camp," leading to the great mortality among the men in 1776. The subsequent career of this scoundrel is related, even his death in London. This is a circumstantial story, but leaves the reader unsatisfied. Such monstrous cruelty would have left a deep and lasting impression upon the mind of any American. Why, then, is not the name of this Frenchman given? Why assert the reward of his act by the British commander, something inconceivable? Why attribute the mortality in the Flying Camp to such an act when it could be more easily explained by intelligible causes? The medical service of the army was known to be poor and corrupt; and so notorious did it become that a removal of the head physician was made, leading, among other results, to Rush's joining in the cabal of 1777-'78 against Washington.

It was in his capacity as Commissary General of Prisoners that Boudinot would record his most valuable recollections, but even there one is surprised not to find more. He was in charge of the "intelligence" from New York, a dangerous duty and one that should be full of incident. He tells us of an attempt to deceive with false information (i., 68, 69) and of two handsome offers, from the British, for his defection (i., 103, 125). The account of Lee's return to camp has before been printed; but the account of the sufferings of the American prisoners in New York is new, and may be accepted as historical, for Boudinot was the only person to whom the privilege of visiting them would be accorded.

As he was connected with headquarters, he

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must have enjoyed many opportunities of knowing the hidden motives of action, such as the visit of a committee of Congress to Washington in 1777, to urge upon him the "political" necessity of gaining a victory; but he gives few results of those opportunities, and is tantalizing where he might be expected to have a full knowledge from a personal connection with the event described. He was, for example, one of the commissioners appointed by Washington in March, 1778 (not, as Boudinot says, the "winter of 1778"), to frame a cartel with the British for a general exchange of prisoners. A committee of Congress, then in camp, wished to avoid an exchange of prisoners at the opening of the campaign, and advised that the negotiations "should be merely ostensible, for the purpose of satisfying the army & throwing the blame on the British." Washington promptly resented such a scheme, and in something of a huff the committee returned to Congress, and induced that body to pass resolutions censuring the Commander-in-Chief—a censure which, Boudinot states, was afterwards expunged from the minutes. Meanwhile the commissioners repaired to Germantown, declared to be neutral territory during the sessions, and, after exchanging powers, began a performance more interesting than dignified. Grayson was selected to outdrink the British, which he did. Then the British objected to the powers of the Americans, but consented to submit a draft of a cartel. On the third day the English wanted to attend a ball in Philadelphia, and asked that business be suspended. The next day, on returning from the ball, the Americans were informed that the neutrality of Germantown ceased after the sessions of the commissioners, and a reasonable time was allowed "for us to return to our army"—a matter of sixteen miles. Charges of bad faith followed, and the English invited themselves to dine with the Americans. "We immediately perceived their Drift was to keep us engaged until it was too late to go or by drinking freely prevent us. We were on our guard & set Coll. Grayson to manage them. They accordingly sat after dinner with Grayson while we were preparing to go off, till they could scarcely sit upright." Upon a subsequent meeting at Newtown, O'Hara confidentially told the Americans that Howe was playing with them, that he had no authority to enter into a cartel, and intended to break off negotiations when every excuse for prolonging them had been exhausted. So both sides prepared a formal report and separated, but not till "the stores were exhausted." Something in this explanation needs explanation. It is now known that Howe was bound, by orders from Germain, not to effect an exchange of prisoners in such a way as to recognize the Americans in any other rôle than that of rebels. Would it have been decent for O'Hara to tell the American commissioners that his superior officer was insincere? Boudinot must have written his later impressions of the incident.

It is regrettable to find so many errrors in proof-reading and possibly in transcribing the letters. With the many sources of information available it was inexcusable to permit so many blunders to remain unnoticed. It required time to unravel the words "Dr. Gasper Jove Lanosabbe Guavia" into Don Gaspar José Llanos (& ?) Abbe Gavarra (i., 397). General Freidrell (i., 131) is probably intended for Reidesel, sufficiently prominent in history to be identified. Major Montorieff (i., 174) must be Montcrieff, and the martyred Col. Hayne is with difficulty found in Hamis (i., 243). Congress actually did direct Greene to retaliate for Hayne, but the General wrote that he held no prisoner of sufficient rank. Duguesin (i., 315) is more likely to be Duquesne. United States is printed "number states" in a letter to Carleton (not Carlton, as printed); and Wharton gives the word "enquiries" where our editor notes "(*torn*)" (i., 347-8). The second volume, being made up of speeches, contains few errors. The French names on pp. 93 and 96 have fared hard, and the Bishop of Llandaff is changed into Landall on p. 98. The letter to Madison (p. 155) is either misdated or printed out of its regular order. The editor frequently refers to "MSS. Archives." There is also some peculiarity in selecting letters for publication. In matter the two letters printed in vol i., pp. 281 and 283, are identical; but the important letter to the Ministers at Paris, of July 15, 1783, is omitted. Two letters of Boudinot printed in the 'Correspondence of Samuel B. Webb' are not noticed, though one of them is of high interest. The letter of Washington to Boudinot, April 1, 1777, offering him the office of Commissary-General of Prisoners and defining its duties, is only mentioned, though personal and pertinent to the story.

The Theory of the Divine Right of Kings. By J. Neville Figgis. [Cambridge Historical Essays. No. IX.] Macmillan. 1896.

Mr. Figgis's book is an expanded and rewritten prize dissertation. It is an attempt, on which great labor has been spent, to trace the natural history of the theory of the divine right of kings to its causes. Stated in a few words, what he wishes to show is, that the theory was originally a popular theory, set up at the close of the middle ages in opposition to the divine right of the Pope; that it contributed to the great revolution by which the supremacy of the church was subverted, and modern civil allegiance (and hence the modern state itself) rendered possible. He distinguishes between the causes which produced the theory and the reasons by which it was supported, the latter being to modern ideas confessedly absurd. The part of the essay which maintains this thesis is interesting and ingenious, but the conclusions with regard to the part played by divine right in the seventeenth century are startling. These seem to be that the doctrine was essentially anti-clerical, because it had been anti-papal; that a deep sense of the majesty of the law and of the duty of obedience is "the priceless legacy" bequeathed to our own day "by the believers in the divine right of kings"; that "the main tendency of the doctrine was beneficial." Holding these views, the author is inevitably led to the conclusion that the theory of an original compact (through its influence upon Rousseau) has been "infinitely more pernicious in practice than the notions of Indefeasible Right and Passive Obedience."

The essay comes before the public with the approval of the University, and is a curiosity as an illustration of the influences at work there. It is really a political pamphlet, written by a student under Sir John Seeley who has caught his master's manner to perfection. The reason why he desires to bolster up the reputation of Filmer and other royalist writers is evidently because he believes that the Home Rule bill and the London County Council are results of the compact theory, in the same way that many people think that Rousseau caused the French Revolution. But, as he himself says, the causes of beliefs should not be confounded with the reasons given for them, and so, too, it must be remembered that great political changes, though they may be advanced and defended by theory, are produced by facts. And if we wish to know why the divine-right theory, after doing its work in bolstering up king against pope, became so important in the seventeenth century in England, it is in the facts of English history that the explanation must be sought. If it was not a recrudescence of theocracy in the interest of reactionary kings against Parliament and free institutions, then history will have to be rewritten. The reader will look in vain through this book for facts showing that the theory of the divine right of kings performed any useful function in England in the development of the art of government after the Tudor period. The theory, which embraced divine hereditary right, non-resistance, and passive obedience, was an old weapon which the royalists furbished up and employed against their antagonists; but it was even then essentially outworn, and, as the author very naïvely admits, when James II. ran away, ceased to be of any use.

The superiority of the compact theory over the theological theory of government lay in the fact that, though founded on a false historical assumption, it marked a distinct advance in human thought; it recognized the necessity of accounting for the existence of government by natural causes. Although historical investigation has not confirmed the theory as an explanation of the past, experience has demonstrated the possibility of government as a result of compact, and the idea is realized in every government deriving its powers in theory of law from a paramount written constitution adopted by a self-governing community. Such a government rests, as governments always have rested, on force, but the force is exerted under the compact. It may be overturned by a conspirator or a mob, but a new compact is immediately resorted to to ratify the change through the suffrage. It is extraordinary to us that a great university should print arguments, however ingenious, which serve mainly to show a tendency in it toward perverted views of history. If the universities are to come to the rescue of the Crown, well and good; but this object will not be accomplished by trying to persuade us that the royalist writers of the seventeenth century were inspired publicists, full of ideas in advance of their time.

The Sonnet in England, and Other Essays. By J. Ashcroft Noble. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams.

It is clearly a misfortune, growing out of the profuse literary activity of London and of the ease with which mediocre books get themselves printed there, that the world receives from that quarter a steady stream of critical booklets, containing small studies, often of smaller authors; these studies having previously done duty, at any time within twenty years, in some magazine or newspaper. Thus the present volume opens with a study of the English sonnet, made and first printed sixteen years ago. Since that date, a series of compilations and monographs have appeared upon the subject, wholly superseding and often directly disproving much of what is here said. Some of Rossetti's best sonnets have been, moreover, published within the time elapsed; and all the author's discussion of this poet, both in

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the opening essay and in that called "A Pre-Raphaelite Magazine," is rendered almost valueless by the flood of light since thrown upon the whole Rossetti family by themselves and others.

Again, in discussing Coleridge's sonnets and simply ranking them as inferior, on the whole, to Wordsworth's, the critic wholly ignores the extraordinary fact, to which attention has only been called within a few years, that when Coleridge's poems were published in 1797, with those of Lamb and Lloyd, he repudiated every conceivable standard of sonnet-writing, saying that, "respecting the metre of a sonnet, the writer should consult his own convenience,—rhymes many or few or no rhymes at all"; and put this strange theory in practice by publishing a rambling poem of sixteen lines and calling it a sonnet. This is the poem which appears in later editions as "Lines composed while climbing the left ascent of Brockley-Comb." In various ways this first essay by Mr. Noble strikes the careful reader as something well enough in its way but superseded; suggesting Heine's description of the Cid's horse Babieca, to which steed no objection could fairly be made except the incidental fact that he was dead.

The subjects of the other essays in the book are respectively Leigh Hunt, Robert Buchanan, Hawker of Morwenstow (a "poet-priest"), and "The Poetry of Common Sense," namely, that of Pope. Several of these are more recent, yet in the essay on Hunt (dated in 1886), while giving many pages to refute a variety of "calumnies" against his author, Mr. Noble makes no sign of having even read the charges which are on the whole the most serious of all yet urged against him; those, namely, of selfishness and almost treachery, contained in the letters of Mrs. Shelley. Here, therefore, as elsewhere, appears the evil of a too tardy reprinting of what is practically superseded.

We have given more space to this volume than it perhaps deserves, because it represents a class, though of these it is among the least deserving. Le Gallienne and Alice Meynell—even Symonds, Gosse, and Lang—often send across the Atlantic matter which is trivial enough; but in their cases the work reprinted is usually more nearly contemporary, and offers themes that are important if the treatment is not. Yet much which they too offer is simply journalism decanted into volumes; collected, not selected; exhibiting anew the vast profuseness of London, yet lowering the average of its product. Many books of the same class are published in this country, but they fortunately seldom reach England, while the prevailing literary trade-wind brings many such hither from the other side, so that we waste our time in picking up the smaller book-gossip of that country, perhaps fifteen or twenty years old. To those for whom the dregs of yesterday's wine-glass bring pleasure, this book may perhaps be recommended.

Materials for the Study of Variation, Treated with especial regard to Discontinuity in the Origin of Species. By William Bateson, M.A. Macmillan & Co. Large 8vo, pp. xv, 598, illustrated.

THE variations to which the term discontinuous is here applied are those commonly designated as "sports." In these a new and transmissible character has suddenly appeared, causing them to differ from their parents and others of their race, and, by establishing a new point of departure, to make a real step forward in the evolution of a new species. This was the position of Galton, in 1892. No intermediates exist to graduate the differences between the sport and its parents, hence the discontinuity. By gathering a great number of data and studying them for what they yield, the author effectually discredits the practice of starting with a theory and searching for facts to support it, and his conclusions seriously impair opinions, more or less generally accepted, built in that fashion upon theories of adaptation, utility, and especially of natural selection. Species are discontinuous, and, if proved to originate in discontinuous variations (be the causes what they may), the continuous, minute, beneficial variations, so called, lose the great importance heretofore ascribed to them; and further, in view of the possible origin and establishment of a species without competition, the necessity of proof of the presence and effect of natural selection in every instance, just as in the case of any other factor, becomes sufficiently evident. If, in a particular species, an individual possessing an additional segment in the body or an extra joint in the leg transmits its peculiarity to its progeny, a new species is established, though the time when it will be called upon to compete for selection may be beyond calculation in the future.

As if timid, or not wishing to rouse opponents, the author disclaims any intent of attacking the Darwinism of Darwin, but the disclaimer avails little in presence of what he has gathered here. We commend the volume to all interested in the variation and origin of species. Its value will be more appreciated and its influence more felt in time to come, as it makes a good foundation for subsequent study in its line. The author's industry is noteworthy; his classification is simple and convenient; in the main his work is of good quality. For many of his data he of necessity relies upon facts reported by others, and here and there among the references a need of close revision and thorough verification is apparent. A paragraph concerning the two-tailed gold-fishes, on page 453, will illustrate: "Pouchet states that the evidence goes to show that this anomalous race is not maintained in China by any rigid selection. He quotes a Chinese encyclopædia to the effect that the double-tailed gold-fish is found in running streams, and gives the evidence of Kleyn, a missionary in China during the eighteenth century, who states that 'In fluvio Sleyn Cyprini sunt qui caudam habent trifurcam et a piscatoribus Leid-brassen vocantur, quasi diceres aliorum Cyprinorum conductores.'" Of the last sentence it may be said that the name of the man is incorrect, that he was not a missionary, was not in China, and was not writing of that country, that the statement was not his, and is not correctly given, that the name of the river was not (as appears) Sleyn, and the stream was not in China, and that the remarks were not applied to the gold-fish. Traced to its source, the citation refers to the naturalist J. T. Klein (Secr. Civ. Gedan. Soc. Reg. Lond. et Acad. Scient. Bonon. Sodalis) who, in his 'Historiæ piscium naturalis promovendæ,' Missus V., 1749, p. 62, quotes the following from Schonevelde, 1624, Ichthyologia, p. 33: "In Sleia Cyprini lati sunt, caudam incurvatam vel sinuatam gerentes, ac si ea bis fracta fuisset, Piscatores vocant Leidbrassen, quasi reliquorum duces, quibus conspectis fœlici omine amplam capturam sibi pollicentur." Under its modern titles, Schlei, Schleswiger Fiord, etc., the stream flows into the western Baltic a short distance north of Kiel, in Gottorp, Sleswick. The fish of which Schonevelde wrote was not the Chinese gold-fish, *Carassius auratus*, but the European bream, *Abramis brama*.

The Pith of Astronomy (without Mathematics): The Latest Facts and Figures as Developed by the Giant Telescopes. By Samuel G. Bayne. Harper & Bros.

THE qualification, "without mathematics," of the title will take with the public, but this little work would have been stronger, in the estimation of those who do care for them, if a little attention had been paid to the mathematics, and the author would have been spared such slips of the pencil as that which makes him assert that the mean distances of the outer planets from the earth are each ninety-three million miles less than the corresponding mean distances from the sun. This is a minor matter, and does not affect the principal intention of the book, which is to present facts selected from many different authorities. The good points of the volume are, that it brings together in compact form those facts and figures in astronomy which are of popular interest; that the information has been gathered in the main from reliable sources; that the selection of matter is judicious; and that the arrangement is convenient, while the literary style is reasonably good. The criticisms which may be urged against it are, that the author occasionally confuses hypothesis with fact, that once in a while he perpetuates the vagary of some reporter, like that which informs us that Mr. Lowell "has lately devoted his life and his fortune to the observation of Mars," and that once in a while he misses the most popular feature of the story, as when he neglects to mention the meteor streams travelling in the same orbit as Biela's comet, or that Keeler proves the meteoric nature of Saturn's rings by showing, by means of the spectroscope, that the motion of the particles is different in different parts of the rings. In the interest of accurate statement one must condemn the bit of sensationalism which announces on the title-page that the facts and figures in the book have been "developed by the giant telescopes." The work in which these telescopes are engaged does not appeal to those who are likely to be Mr. Bayne's readers, so that hardly one of his facts (excepting, perhaps, that Jupiter has a fifth moon) appears in support of his claim.

The volume is very neat in appearance, and contains a number of excellent illustrations.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, George. Artie: A Story of the Streets and Town. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Alger, Horatio, jr. Frank Hunter's Peril. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
A Prophetic Romance: Mars to the Earth. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Bibliographica. Part X. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Boardman, Emery. Winning Whist. Scribners. $1
Britton, Prof. N. L., and Brown, Addison. An Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States, Canada, and the British Possessions. Vol. I. Ophioglossaceæ to Aizoaceæ. Scribners.
Bulwer-Lytton, Sir E. Harold. University Publishing Co.
Byers, S. H. M. The March to the Sea: A Poem. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Cherry and Violet: A Tale of the Great Plague. London: Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Cowdrick, J. C. Will Hilton's Will. New York: National Temperance Society. 50c.
Curtis, G. T. Constitutional History of the United States. Vol. II. Harpers. $3.
Delpit, Édouard. Cœur Déçu. Paris: Lévy; New York: Brentano's. $1.
Geddie, John. The Balladists. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
Godkin, E. L. Problems of Modern Democracy: Political and Economic Essays. Scribners. $2.
Guerber, H. A. Legends of the Middle Ages. American Book Co. $1.50.
Guerber, H. A. The Story of Greece. American Book Co. 60c.
Hodgdon, Josephine E. Lowell Leaflets: Poems and Prose Passages. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.

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Johnston, W. D., and Jean B. English Historical Reprints. I. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Sheehan & Co.
Judd, Prof. J. W. The Student's Lyell: A Manual of Elementary Geology. Harpers. $2.25.
Kinross, Albert. The Fearsome Island. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Lothrop, T. K. William Henry Seward. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Macdonald, George A. How Successful Lawyers were Educated. New York: Banks & Bros. $1.
Magruder, Julia. The Violet. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Munroe, Kirk. Rick Dale: A Story of the Northwest Coast. Harpers. $1.25.
Pitman, Isaac. Complete Phonographic Instructor. Revised ed. New York: Isaac Pitman & Sons $1.50.
Prince, L. B. The Money Problem; or, Bimetallism vs. a Single Gold Standard. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
Roberts, Baron von. Lou. New York: American Publishers Corporation.
Rothwell, R. P. Universal Bimetallism and an International Monetary Clearing House. Scientific Publishing Co. 50c.
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Villari, Prof. Pasquale. Life and Times of Girolamo Savonarola. Popular edition. Scribners. $2.50.
Waugh, Arthur. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. Vol V. Scribners $2.50.
Way, A. S. The Tragedies of Euripides in English Verse. Vol. II. Macmillan. $2.
Wentworth, G. A. A Practical Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Wigram, Rev. S. R. The Cartulary of the Monastery of St. Frideswide at Oxford. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wyatt, A. J., and Low, W. H. Intermediate Text-Book of English Literature. Vol. I. London: W. B. Clive; New York: Hinds & Noble. 80c.
Young, Virginia D. A Tower in the Desert. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.

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